

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

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ART. I.—*Journal of the late Campaign in Egypt; including Descriptions of that Country, and of Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Marmorice, and Macri; with an Appendix; containing Official Papers and Documents: by Thomas Walsh, Captain in his Majesty's Ninety-Third Regiment of Foot, &c. Illustrated by numerous Engravings of Antiquities, Views, Costumes, Plans, Positions, &c. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.*

THIS tale has been so often told, that, without novelty of event or of language, it must disgust. We meet, in the volume before us, with little of either: as a journal, it is, perhaps, still less interesting than Mr. Anderson's, and, as a military history, greatly inferior to sir Robert Wilson's work. Yet, in some respects, it rises considerably above both; we mean, on account of its valuable plans and maps. One *desideratum* in former works of this kind is here supplied; *viz.* a map of Malta. Had it appeared before, it might have saved us no small trouble. To conclude, however, the subject of these useful and ornamental appendages, we may remark that they are very unequal. The coloured plates, though striking and characteristic, are inelegant daubings. The views, on the whole, are satisfactory, though, in some instances, defective: the charts, the maps and plans of the different actions, almost unexceptionably meritorious. The plates are numerous, amounting, in the whole, to forty-nine subjects, in thirty-five plates.

As the title imports, the work is a journal of the campaign, from the period of sailing from Gibraltar, to the conclusion of the war in Egypt, which formed its theatre; to which is added a short account of that singular country, and of the pyramids, collected in a tour to Cairo. Each bay and island claims a share of the author's attention; and, of Malta, the historical account is somewhat too extensive and hackneyed. We know not the precise object which engages the attention of our government in the present dispute: yet it may be worth observing, that, since, in our new commercial regulations,

the want of a free port, like Leghorn, will be severely felt, Malta may, perhaps, supply its place. The island of Elba was undoubtedly the spot for an emporium of this kind; and its port would contain the whole navy of England. It was, however, not to be dispensed with by the Italian republic; and, we believe, was resigned, with great reluctance, by our ministers. Malta is undoubtedly too distant: but the advantages, lost by Spain and the western coast of Italy, in consequence of this situation, are compensated by its vicinity to the Asiatic coast, the Grecian islands, and the eastern shores of Italy. We strongly suspect that the advantages of Malta, in this view, have not been sufficiently considered. They have, however, been placed in a train where they will claim more attention than in these pages; and may, perhaps, supersede the projected purchase of Sardinia, whose harbour is by no means equal to that of Porto Ferrajo, or of Malta. In the shifting politics of the present day, all is, nevertheless, uncertain; and Malta may still be resigned, before these observations can find their way from the press.

It is time to leave speculation, and to follow our author and the forces. The first interesting passage that we meet, is the picturesque description of the Bay of Marmorice.

‘The entrance into this singularly beautiful haven, which is sufficiently spacious to contain all the navy of Great Britain, is, as I before observed, narrow, lying between two ranges of steep mountains, that extend to the sea shore. From this the view opens at once upon a sheet of unruffled water, nearly twenty miles in circumference, surrounded by lofty hills, rising one above the other like an amphitheatre, most of them thickly covered with trees, composing the richest variety of shades, and reaching down to the very edge of the water, into which some of them actually dip their pendent branches. In other parts of the surrounding scenery, huge masses of rock, broken and rugged, with scarcely a sign of vegetation on them, project into the water, varying the scene, and adding considerably to its wild sublimity; while beyond the woody hills prodigious masses of barren mountains appear, rising one above the other in pleasing confusion, with here and there scattered clumps of trees, climbing almost to the top.

‘To attempt describing all the varieties of this immense scenery of wood and mountain, where every change of position gives a new outline and fresh tints to please the eye, would be a vain effort; but the view is most particularly beautiful and sublime, when, on a calm evening, the rays of the setting sun, throwing over the surrounding scenery a rich and glossy stream of light, display a magnificence beyond the utmost stretch of fancy, and equally above the delineation of the pencil.’ P. 45.

The town and castle of Marmorice, with the adjacent mountains, are represented in a plate. We forgot to re-

mark, that, in treating of Rhodes, our author follows the ancient fable, in supposing the celebrated Colossus to have stood at the entrance of the harbour, with one leg on each shore; though it is much more probable that this famous statue of the sun was *near* the harbour only, at some distance from the sea.

In the gulf of Macri, our author describes and delineates the remains of the ancient amphitheatre at Telmessus. The town, from the extent of these remains, might, in his opinion, have contained from about twenty to twenty-five thousand inhabitants.

We shall not follow him in the voyage to Egypt, or in the eventful actions of the 13th and the 21st of March. We see little added to, or different from, former accounts; and the narrative is by no means so clear and explicit, as that in sir Robert Wilson's work. Perhaps we have not understood the nature and constitution of the dromedary corps, so well as it is explained in the following passage.

'The French had been followed, ever since they left El Och, by a body of seven or eight hundred Arabs on horseback, who annoyed them excessively, and prevented their sending out reconnoitring parties, as these, once separated from the main body, would soon have fallen a sacrifice to their inveterate animosity. The regiment of dromedaries had been a very useful corps to the French. It was composed of picked men, chosen from the whole army, who, mounted upon these very swift animals, were employed in pursuing the Arabs through the desert, and overtaking them where it would have been impossible for any other troops. Tribes of Arabs retiring into the deepest parts of the desert, where they thought themselves secure, were soon dispersed by them, and their numerous flocks of sheep, sometimes as many as two or three thousand, became the property of the captors, among whom the value was afterward divided. By these means, several individuals of this corps had accumulated to the amount of forty or fifty thousand livres, [sixteen or twenty hundred guineas] with which they were very glad to return to France. I have heard it confidently asserted, that, when attacked by a very superiour force of Arabs, the men dismounted from their dromedaries, and, making them lie down, placed themselves behind them, the animal thus serving as a parapet to his rider.' P. 133.

The following account of the capoutan pacha merits our particular attention, as he may become an important personage in future political scenes.

'The capoutan pacha has displayed, in the present campaign at least, his military qualifications, which have obtained him high renown in this country, but which dwindle away when put in competition with the talents of an European commander.

'An ambition spurning the idea of a rival, prodigal generosity, activity indefatigable, great penetration, a marked predilection for

every thing European, and a desire to better the condition of every one immediately about him, are the best and most prominent features in his character; but to his education in the seraglio he owes the opposite and dark side of his character, profound dissimulation, and a deep spirit of intrigue.

‘ He has great interest at Constantinople, derived from his own abilities, and from his relationship to the sultan, one of whose sisters is his wife. He is violent in his hatred to the person who has sufficient penetration to develop his character, or his views; but as his animosity increases, he puts on a semblance of friendship more attractive, and the mask of kindness never falls off, till his enemy is enticed into the snare.

‘ Still he is the only man now among the Turks, who possesses enlarged ideas in politics. He has been able to place the Turkish navy on a footing far more respectable, than when he was put at it’s head; and there is not one Turkish commander, except himself, who has disciplined his troops with any degree of regularity. He has now under his orders two very good regiments, those of Abdallah and Soliman Aga, commanded indeed by Germans, but owing much of their regularity to his own superintendence.

‘ The capoutan pacha has the utmost contempt for the vizier, which he does not endeavour to conceal. He took great pains to keep his army separate, and always wished that the prowess of his troops should be compared with that of the vizier’s forces. His pride told him, that he could not lose by the comparison.

‘ The vivacity of his mind inclines him rather to the French than to the English, and should he succeed in his views of being appointed vizier, to which situation his talents and ambition lead him, his first act would probably be to consolidate an amicable treaty with France, and endeavour to establish a regular and well disciplined army in the Turkish empire, by introducing European officers. He will probably succeed in many of his plans, unless continual fatigue, excess in opium, or intrigues, cut him off in the midst of his career.

‘ There is one person in whom he reposes the utmost confidence, and whom on all occasions he consults. This is Isaak Bey, a man of deep and low cunning, who has been at Paris, and is a complete Frenchman. He will most likely succeed his patron, the capoutan pacha, in his situation.’ P. 146.

Pompey’s Pillar has shared much of the attention of the English officers, who have discovered an inscription on its base. The whole account we shall transcribe.

‘ In a former part of this work I had mentioned it was plainly discernible, that there had been an inscription on the western face of the pedestal of the pillar near Alexandria, commonly called Pompey’s, though this has been flatly denied by some travellers. This inscription, however, was in such a state that nothing short of the most indefatigable ardour could hope to decipher it; yet it has been accomplished by the able and unremitting exertions of the honourable captain Dundas, of the royal staff corps, and lieutenant Desade, of the queen’s German regiment, the latter of whom, during the campaign

in Egypt, served as aide de camp to major general Sir Eyre Coote, as he has since under the earl of Cavan: by whom this valuable discovery, which ascertains to whom and by whom the pillar was erected, has just been brought to England. These gentlemen, by visiting the pillar repeatedly, during the few moments when the sun shone in such a direction upon the pedestal as to mark the letters by their shade, were enabled to discriminate them one after another. Thus they executed a task, in six weeks, which none of the French *savans* or literati appear even to have attempted during their long stay in the country. I shall give the inscription first as it was made out by these officers, and then as the deficient letters have been supplied by the rev. Mr. Hayter, at Naples, who is laudably employed in deciphering the manuscripts found in Herculaneum. To these I shall subjoin an English translation.

TO ΩΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚ . Η . ΙΑΝΟΝΤΟΝ ΤΟΝ
ΠΟ ΕΠΑΡΧΟΣ ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ

ΤΟΝ ΤΙΜΙΩΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚΛΗΤΙΑΝΟΝ ΤΟΝ ΣΕΒΑΣΤΟΝ
ΠΟΝΤΙΟΣ ΕΠΑΡΧΟΣ ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ
"ΠΡΟΚΥΝΕΙ"

‘ Translation.

‘ TO DIOCLETIANUS AUGUSTUS
MOST ADORABLE EMPEROR,
THE TUTELAR DEITY OF ALEXANDRIA,
PONTIUS, PREFECT OF EGYPT,
CONSECRATES THIS.

We think Mr. Hayter, whose classical knowledge we are well acquainted with, and highly respect, did not furnish this translation, nor authorise our author to add, that the inscription shows *to* whom, and *by* whom, this pillar was erected. In every erection of a monument to the honour of an emperor or a hero, the dative case is always employed; but *προκύνησις* is, we believe, never used with a dative, except in the New Testament; nor is the word ever employed in an inscription. This, however, only militates against the use of the supplied word *προκύνησις*; but the remark holds with respect to the pillar being erected to Diocletian. The sentence may be concluded in many other ways. We shall not add our conjectures, but only remark that the disputed point is by no means elucidated.

The journey to Cairo offers nothing particularly interesting, except the plates, which represent views of Cairo, Gizeh, &c. drawn with elegance and precision. There are views, also, of Joseph's well, and the different mechanical means of raising the waters of the Nile for the purpose of inundation. We cannot omit our author's description of the pyramids, as it is of consequence to record the impression these stupendous remains make on different minds.

'The country was almost all under water, and from the spot where we landed we had about a mile to walk, over a heavy sand, to the great pyramid. As we approached these most ancient and astonishing of all antiquities, we were surprised not to find their bulk increase in appearance; and, what was still more extraordinary, when at the distance of two hundred yards, the stones, with which they are built, seemed to our eyes no larger than common bricks: but when we arrived at the foot of the first pyramid, which is the largest, we were struck with astonishment, and could not but wonder at the immense labour and expense, with which these admirable monuments must have been raised. Those stones, which at so short a distance had appeared so small, were now transformed into masses four feet square, and two in height. To what this illusion is to be ascribed, whether to the power of perspective, or to the manner in which these structures are built, each course of stones receding from that beneath it, till they arrive at the top, I am at a loss to conceive.

'Several large heaps of stone, of the same kind and size as those used in the building of the pyramids, are collected around them. This stone is of a soft nature, and in appearance not unlike chalk.

'The construction of these massive monuments, built with all the proportions necessary to ensure their durability, though not a masterpiece of elegance, is surely one of art; as neither the force of winds and storms, the gradual decay of time, nor the spoiling hand of man, has hitherto been able to shake them. Even at this remote period from the time when they were erected, the toil and cost, that must attend their demolition, would be incredible.

'From the pyramids we proceeded to that monstrous figure, the sphinx. The face of it has been most savagely mutilated, and only retains enough of its former features, to allow you to guess what it once was. The French, having cleared the sand all around the foundation, have enabled us to ascertain, that it never had a body connected to it, as was generally imagined.' p. 249.

The 'views' of the pyramids merit commendation.

A few concluding observations on the Nile, the climate, and population, of Egypt, are added, which convey no new information. They are illustrated with coloured plates, bold but incorrect.

The appendix contains the various returns and dispatches of the commanders, with the papers found in the pocket of general Roize, who fell the 21st of March; and a very candid account of the siege of Cairo, by general Belliard, al-

ready published. In short, we find every document which is necessary to remove doubt or skepticism.

ART. II. — *Voyages from Montréal, on the River St. Lawrence, through the Continent of North America, &c. By Alexander Mackenzie, Esq. (Continued from Vol. XXXV. New Arr. p. 130.*

WE return to these Voyages, though without great curiosity, since, having completed the subject in a geographical view, the particular events cannot expect to be found very interesting. In the first journey, whose course, in general, we traced (p. 123), we find few circumstances which can detain us. Scattered tribes of savages, in the higher latitudes, with few resources of ingenuity, and as few powers of mind, meet us in different directions. Their huts are rude constructions, their arts but trivial. The fisheries are their chief support, though they are occasionally hunters. The beaver does not appear to be a frequent inhabitant of the high northern region through which our author traveled; and the skin of a moose-deer was there considered as a present of peculiar value. Slave Lake, which lies in a more genial climate (about 61° north latitude), abounds with a variety of animals; and we shall select a short account of our traveler's observations in this spot:—they were made in June 1789.

‘The course of this river’ (Slave River) ‘is meandering, and tends to the north, and in about ten miles falls into the Slave Lake, where we arrived at nine in the morning, when we found a great change in the weather, as it was become extremely cold. The lake was entirely covered with ice, and did not seem in any degree to have given way, but near the shore. The gnats and muskitoes, which were very troublesome during our passage along the river, did not venture to accompany us to this colder region.

‘The banks of the river both above and below the rapids, were on both sides covered with the various kinds of wood common to this country; particularly the western side; the land being lower and consisting of a rich black soil. This artificial ground is carried down by the stream, and rests upon drift wood, so as to be eight or ten feet deep. The eastern banks are more elevated, and the soil a yellow clay mixed with gravel; so that the trees are neither so large or numerous as on the opposite shore. The ground was not thawed above fourteen inches in depth; notwithstanding the leaf was at its full growth; while along the lake there was scarcely any appearance of verdure.

‘The Indians informed me, that, at a very small distance from either bank of the river, are very extensive plains, frequented by large herds of buffaloes; while the moose and rein-deer keep in the woods that border on it. The beavers, which are in great numbers, build

their habitations in the small lakes and rivers, as, in the larger streams, the ice carries every thing along with it, during the spring. The mud banks in the river are covered with wild fowl; and we this morning killed two swans, ten geese, and one beaver, without suffering the delay of an hour: so that we might have soon filled the canoe with them, if that had been our object.' p. 7.

From Slave Lake, Mr. Mackenzie proceeds, in a western direction, to the mountains, through a river to which his own name is affixed. This river, on reaching the higher grounds, assumes a northerly direction, and falls into the North Sea. He seems not to have seen the sea; but its vicinity was sufficiently clear, from the tides. Whale Island, the Thule of Mr. Mackenzie, is nearly in $69\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. The following is a description of the Indians in latitude $65\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ —somewhat to the south of the point where the great Bear River, from the east, joins Mackenzie's River, or rather diverges from it, in a western course.

'During our short stay with these people, they amused us with dancing, which they accompanied with their voices; but neither their song or their dance possessed much variety. The men and women formed a promiscuous ring. The former have a bone dagger or piece of stick between the fingers of the right hand, which they keep extended above the head, in continual motion: the left they seldom raise so high, but work it backwards and forwards in an horizontal direction; while they leap about and throw themselves into various antic postures, to the measure of their music, always bringing their heels close to each other at every pause. The men occasionally howl in imitation of some animal, and he who continues this violent exercise for the longest period, appears to be considered as the best performer. The women suffer their arms to hang as without the power of motion. They are a meagre, ugly, ill-made people, particularly about the legs, which are very clumsy and covered with scabs. The latter circumstance proceeds probably from their habitually roasting them before the fire. Many of them appeared to be in a very unhealthy state, which is owing, as I imagine, to their natural filthiness. They are of a moderate stature, and as far as could be discovered, through the coat of dirt and grease that covers them, are of a fairer complexion than the generality of Indians who are the natives of warmer climates.

'Some of them have their hair of a great length; while others suffer a long tress to fall behind, and the rest is cut so short as to expose their ears, but no other attention whatever is paid to it. The beards of some of the old men were long, and the rest had them pulled out by the roots, so that not an hair could be seen on their chins. The men have two double lines, either black or blue, tattooed upon each cheek, from the ear to the nose. The gristle of the latter is perforated so as to admit a goose-quill or a small piece of wood to be passed through the orifice. Their clothing is made of the dressed skins of the rein or moose-deer, though more commonly of the former. These they prepare in the hair for winter, and make shirts of both, which reach to

the middle of their thighs. Some of them are decorated with an embroidery of very neat workmanship with porcupine quills and the hair of the moose, coloured red, black, yellow, and white. Their upper garments are sufficiently large to cover the whole body, with a fringe round the bottom, and are used both sleeping and awake. Their leggings come half way up the thigh, and are sewed to their shoes: they are embroidered round the ankle, and upon every seam. The dress of the women is the same as that of the men. The former have no covering on their private parts, except a tassel of leather which dangles from a small cord, as it appears, to keep off the flies, which would otherwise be very troublesome. Whether circumcision be practised among them, I cannot pretend to say, but the appearance of it was general among those whom I saw.' P. 35.

‘ Their lodges are of a very simple structure : a few poles supported by a fork, and forming a semicircle at the bottom, with some branches or a piece of bark as a covering, constitutes the whole of their native architecture. They build two of these huts facing each other, and make the fire between them. The furniture harmonises with the buildings : they have a few dishes of wood, bark, or horn ; the vessels in which they cook their victuals, are in the shape of a gourd, narrow at the top and wide at the bottom, and of watape, fabricated in such a manner as to hold water, which is made to boil by putting a succession of red-hot stones into it. These vessels contain from two to six gallons. They have a number of small leather bags to hold their embroidered work, lines, and nets. They always keep a large quantity of the fibres of willow bark, which they work into thread on their thighs. Their nets are from three to forty fathoms in length, and from thirteen to thirty-six meshes in depth. The short deep ones they set in the eddy current of rivers, and the long ones in the lakes. They likewise make lines of the sinews of the rein-deer, and manufacture their hooks from wood, horn, or bone. Their arms and weapons for hunting, are bows and arrows, spears, daggers, and pogamagans, or clubs. The bows are about five or six feet in length, and the strings are of sinews or raw skins. The arrows are two feet and an half long, including the barb, which is variously formed of bone, horn, flint, iron, or copper, and are winged with three feathers. The pole of the spears is about six feet in length, and pointed with a barbed bone of ten inches. With this weapon they strike the rein-deer in the water. The daggers are flat and sharp-pointed, about twelve inches long, and made of horn or bone. The pogamagon is made of the horn of the rein-deer, the branches being all cut off, except that which forms the extremity. This instrument is about two feet in length, and is employed to dispatch their enemies in battle, and such animals as they catch in snares placed for that purpose. These are about three fathom long, and are made of the green skin of the rein or moose-deer, but in such small strips, that it requires from ten to thirty strands to make this cord, which is not thicker than a cod-line ; and strong enough to resist any animal that can be entangled in it. Snares or nooses are also made of sinews to take lesser animals, such as hares and white partridges, which are very numerous. Their axes are manufactured of a piece of brown or grey stone from six to eight inches long, and two

inches thick. The inside is flat, and the outside round and tapering to an edge, an inch wide. They are fastened by the middle with the flat side inwards to an handle two feet long, with a cord of green skin. This is the tool with which they split their wood, and we believe, the only one of its kind among them.' p. 37.

These Indians, as well as their more southern neighbours, were extravagant in their stories of the difficulties and dangers of the remainder of the journey. The river is represented as full of rapids, abounding in *manitous* or spirits; and the extent of the journey as being so great, that old age would overtake them before they could arrive at its termination. In the higher latitudes, the manners are more nearly those of the Esquimaux, from whom they are at no great distance on the north-east, and whom they seem greatly to dread. We need not stay to enlarge on the naked dreary appearance of these northern regions, or on the poverty of the inhabitants, but shall add the short account of what our voyagers last saw from Whale Island.

'We landed at the boundary of our voyage in this direction, and as soon as the tents were pitched I ordered the nets to be set, when I proceeded with the English chief to the highest part of the island, from which we discovered the solid ice, extending from the south-west by compass to the eastward. As far as the eye could reach to the south-westward, we could dimly perceive a chain of mountains, stretching further to the north than the edge of the ice, at the distance of upwards of twenty leagues. To the eastward we saw many islands, and in our progress we met with a considerable number of white partridges, now become brown. There were also flocks of very beautiful plovers, and I found the nest of one of them with four eggs. White owls, likewise, were among the inhabitants of the place: but the dead, as well as the living, demanded our attention, for we came to the grave of one of the natives, by which lay a bow, a paddle, and a spear. The Indians informed me that they landed on a small island, about four leagues from hence, where they had seen the tracks of two men, that were quite fresh; they had also found a secret store of train oil, and several bones of white bears were scattered about the place where it was hid. The wind was now so high that it was impracticable for us to visit the nets.' p. 60.

In these regions the travelers stay some time, pursuing the whales when practicable, and supplying themselves with food from the river, by means of their nets, and from the air, by their fire-arms. The animals of these regions are rein-deer, bears, wolvereens, martens, foxes, hares, and white buffaloes; but the latter are only found in the mountains on the west. The Esquimaux are represented as treacherous and cruel: with them, the Indians have frequent contests; and the former appear to be, in many respects, a more intelligent and ingenious race. The Esquimaux men-

tioned their having seen canoes full of white men, eight or ten years ago, to the westward, which were probably some of the seamen of captain Cook. In these high latitudes, Mr. Mackenzie remarks that the appetite is voracious. Ten men and four women devoured, in six days, two rein-deer, four swans, forty-five geese, and a considerable quantity of fishes.

The return was marked by few peculiar circumstances. Some petroleum of a yellow colour, and brittle in consistence, was found on the branch of a stream falling into Mackenzie's River; and flints are discoverable also on its banks. The following observations deserve notice, though we shall not attempt to explain them. They, however, evidently allude to European visitors.

'There were five or six persons whom we had not seen before; and among them was a dog-rib Indian, whom some private quarrel had driven from his country. The English chief understood him as well as one of his own nation, and gave the following account of their conversation:—

'He had been informed by the people with whom he now lives, the Hare Indians, that there is another river on the other side of the mountains to the south-west, which falls into the Belhoullay Toe, or White-man's Lake, in comparison of which that on whose banks we then were, was but a small stream; that the natives were very large, and very wicked, and kill common men with their eyes; that they make canoes larger than ours; that those who inhabit the entrance of it kill a kind of beaver, the skin of which is almost red; and that large canoes often frequent it. As there is no known communication by water with this river, the natives who saw it went over the mountains.' P. 82.

On further examination, this intelligent Indian seemed to describe Unalasche Fort; and the western river was consequently Cook's. From his account, Mackenzie's River must very nearly reach Norton Sound, as the man made mention of a long point of land between the rivers, which was probably a point of the mountains;—but, with respect to so uncertain a circumstance, there is much room for hesitation. The coast to the west of Whale Island has not been very carefully examined. Of these western inhabitants, many singular stories were related. Their large canoes we can easily understand; and that they are of a gigantic stature, adorned with wings, may be a tale easily transferred from the ships to the men. It is said, also, that they fed on large birds, which they killed with ease, though common men became also the victims of their voracity; and that they could kill with their eyes. All this may be easily explained by the accidental sight of an European leveling his gun at a large bird. No additional circumstance worth recording occurred, except

that they saw the side of a seam of coals on fire, on the banks of the river, which filled the air with sulphureous vapour.

The second voyage was, as we have before mentioned, to the Pacific Ocean, chiefly in the course of Peace River, already described.

‘In consequence of this design, I left the establishment of Fort Chepewyan, in charge of Mr. Roderic Mackenzie, accompanied by two canoes laden with the necessary articles for trade: we accordingly steered west for one of the branches that communicates with the Peace River, called the Pine River; at the entrance of which we waited for the other canoes, in order to take some supplies from them, as I had reason to apprehend they would not be able to keep up with us. We entered the Peace River at seven in the morning of the 12th, taking a westerly course. It is evident, that all the land between it and the Lake of the Hills, as far as the Elk River, is formed by the quantity of earth and mud, which is carried down by the streams of those two great rivers. In this space there are several lakes. The lake Clear Water, which is the deepest, Lake Vassieu, and the Athabasca lake, which is the largest of the three, and whose denomination in the Knistineaux language implies a flat, low, swampy country, subject to inundations. The two last lakes are now so shallow, that, from the cause just mentioned, there is every reason to expect, that in a few years, they will have exchanged their character and become extensive forests.

‘This country is so level, that, at some seasons, it is entirely overflowed, which accounts for the periodical influx and reflux of the waters between the Lake of the Hills and the Peace River.’ P. 122.

The name of the river and the point arose from the peace, concluded at the latter, between the Beaver and the Knisteneaux Indians, the real names being those of the land which was the object of the contest. From the Falls, to what is called the old establishment, the river trends south-west*. In this country, the inhabitants—*viz.* the Chepewyans—have adopted the appearance and manners of their former enemies, the Knisteneaux; and their women are, apparently, kept in the most abject submission. They are, of course, squalid and dirty in the extreme. From the entrance of the river, to the Falls, the country is low. On the lowest ground the soil is good, being composed of the sediment of the river, of putrefied leaves and vegetables. In the higher grounds is a yellow clay, mixed with stones. On a line with the Falls, there are, on each side of the river, extensive plains, the pasture of numerous herds of buffaloes. Above the Falls, the ground is more lofty, and displays a similar soil with the higher grounds lately mentioned. Culinary vegetables and

* As Mr. Mackenzie is ascending the stream, the course of the river itself must be considered, in every instance, as in this, to be in an opposite direction. REV.

roots will probably thrive on this spot, as they have done in the neighbourhood of the Elk River, and the Lake of the Hills.

Our author wintered at what is called, in the map, 'Fork Fort,' somewhat to the north and west of the forks of two considerable branches of Peace River. In this spot, on the 25th of November, the thermometer was 14° below 0; and on the 28th, 16° . On the recurrence of a south wind, the thermometer re-ascended to nearly the freezing point. On the 2d of December, however, the instrument was accidentally broken. Fork Fort is in about $56\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ north latitude. The transactions of a winter-residence in this ungenial climate cannot be numerous. — Our author's account of the Beaver Indians is not devoid of interest. They are quick, lively, and active, with dark penetrating eyes, passionate, but easily appeased, fond of gaming, and eradicate their beards. Several appear to be old; but little of their age is known. One Indian said that he remembered the hills and plains—now interspersed with groves of poplars—when they produced nothing but moss, and fed only rein-deer. When the elk and the buffalo appeared from the east, the rein-deer retired to the mountains, and the face of the country soon altered.

Our author proceeds in a westernly or a south-west direction; but his map is at variance with his description. Where the Quisquatina Sepey falls into Peace River, it is said to be in latitude $55^{\circ} 56'$ nearly; but, in the map, the whole of this part of the course is above latitude 56° . The following description of a beautiful country, on the western bank, merits particular notice.

'From the place which we quitted this morning, the west side of the river displayed a succession of the most beautiful scenery I had ever beheld. The ground rises at intervals to a considerable height, and stretching inwards to a considerable distance: at every interval or pause in the rise, there is a very gently ascending space or lawn, which is alternate with abrupt precipices to the summit of the whole, or, at least as far as the eye could distinguish. This magnificent theatre of nature has all the decorations which the trees and animals of the country can afford it: groves of poplars in every shape vary the scene; and their intervals are enlivened with vast herds of elks and buffaloes: the former choosing the steeps and uplands, and the latter preferring the plains. At this time the buffaloes were attended with their young ones who were frisking about them; and it appeared that the elks would soon exhibit the same enlivening circumstance. The whole country displayed an exuberant verdure; the trees that bear a blossom were advancing fast to that delightful appearance, and the velvet rind of their branches reflecting the oblique rays of a rising or a setting sun, added a splendid gaiety to the scene, which no expressions of mine are

qualified to describe. The east side of the river consists of a range of high land covered with the white spruce and the soft birch, while the banks abound with the alder and the willow.' P. 154.

Our travelers now arrive at rocky mountains, where scenes of difficulty and distress, almost unparalleled, await them. The river rolls down in torrents, or tumbles in cascades—is sometimes confined between two craggy mountains, or bounds over a rocky bed, interspersed with still more dangerous islands. On either side the mountains are almost impassable: and the Indian carrying-place is not easily discoverable. These various perils are not concentrated in any one picture which we can copy. We shall, however, select a passage or two, as a specimen.

' Those of my people who visited this place on the 21st, were of opinion that the water had risen very much since that time. About two hundred yards below us the stream rushed with an astonishing but silent velocity, between perpendicular rocks, which are not more than thirty-five yards asunder: when the water is high, it runs over those rocks, in a channel three times that breadth, where it is bounded by far more elevated precipices. In the former are deep round holes, some of which are full of water, while others are empty, in whose bottom are small round stones, as smooth as marble. Some of these natural cylinders would contain two hundred gallons. At a small distance below the first of these rocks, the channel widens in a kind of zig-zag progression; and it was really awful to behold with what infinite force the water drives against the rocks on one side, and with what impetuous strength it is repelled to the other: it then falls back, as it were, into a more straight but rugged passage, over which it is tossed in high, foaming, half-formed billows, as far as the eye could follow it.

' The young men informed me that this was the place where their relations had told me that I should meet with a fall equal to that of Niagara: to exculpate them, however, from their apparent misinformation, they declared that their friends were not accustomed to utter falsehoods, and that the fall had probably been destroyed by the force of the water. It is, however, very evident that those people had not been here, or did not adhere to the truth. By the number of trees which appeared to have been felled with axes, we discovered that the Knisteneaux, or some tribes who are known to employ that instrument, had passed this way. We passed through a snare enclosure, but saw no animals, though the country was very much intersected by their tracks.' P. 180.

' Though the sun had shone upon us throughout the day, the air was so cold that the men, though actively employed, could not resist it without the aid of their blanket coats. This circumstance might in some degree be expected from the surrounding mountains, which were covered with ice and snow; but as they are not so high as to produce the extreme cold which we suffered, it must be more particularly at-

tributed to the high situation of the country itself, rather than to the local elevation of the mountains, the greatest height of which does not exceed fifteen hundred feet; though in general they do not rise to half that altitude. But as I had not been able to take an exact measurement, I do not presume upon the accuracy of my conjecture. Towards the bottom of these heights, which were of clear snow, the trees were putting forth their leaves, while those in their middle region still retained all the characteristics of winter, and on their upper parts there was little or no wood.' P. 182.

In a less difficult track, the travelers proceed chiefly south-east, till they meet with some natives, whose situation and circumstances are far from enviable. They possess, nevertheless, iron-work, which they procure from European traders by means of some tribes who reach the shores of the Pacific—thus forming the connexion between the travelers from the east, and the visitants on the west. They contended, however, and persisted in the account—though most powerful temptations were held out, as means of inducing them to explain the situation of the country—that they knew of no river which reached from the spot on which they existed to the sea. Various plans now suggested themselves to Mr. Mackenzie, of which two chiefly engaged his attention—*viz.* to leave the canoe, and to penetrate, with these Indians, to their commercial friends, or to abandon the enterprise. The former was difficult, the latter mortifying. At last, he discovered, from one of the more intelligent, that, at the source of Peace River, he would find another, through which he might pass; but that even this did not lead to the sea. The rest of the road was chiefly by land, through lakes interspersed with islands inhabited by a war-like and a somewhat civilised race.

Our travelers pursue, with more ease and success, their course to the highest point of the mountains, the chief source of the Unjigah, or Peace River, in latitude $54^{\circ} 24'$, west longitude 121° ; which, after winding through a great extent of country, receiving many large rivers, and passing through Slave Lake, falls into the Frozen Ocean, at 70° north latitude, and 135° west longitude, beyond Whale Island, the boundary of the former journey.

On the summit of these mountains, perhaps the highest land of the American continent, they meet with lakes—the sources of the different rivers—and particularly with those which furnish the rivers whose course is to the south. From these lakes, streamlets, as usual, proceed, which soon become large rivers, so rapid, as to wreck the canoe. In general, the stream is obstructed by drift wood, which, with the projecting rocks, and the furious current, destroys, for a

time, all their hopes. Their exertions, however, increase with their difficulties: the canoe is repaired; and they make a further effort. The river appears to be the Columbia: but its course is to the south; and it only falls into the Pacific, at a much lower latitude. Our travelers avail themselves of its assistance, so long as the Columbia can afford it: but, before they leave this river—the only one to which Columbus has had the honour of giving a name, on the continent which he, at least, first saw—they fell in with a more considerable branch from the south-east. In their track, they find some red deer, less than the elk, and truly the red deer, which our author had not before met with in the north. Their course, with a few slight deviations, is north-west; and the mountains are lower, the country more open, on the west, which is the chief object. The description of the country to the south, as communicated by the Indians, is curious.

‘ According to their account, this river, whose course is very extensive, runs towards the mid-day sun; and that at its mouth, as they had been informed, white people were building houses. They represented its current to be uniformly strong, and that in three places it was altogether impassable, from the falls and rapids, which poured along between perpendicular rocks that were much higher, and more rugged, than any we had yet seen, and would not admit of any passage over them. But besides the dangers and difficulties of the navigation, they added, that we should have to encounter the inhabitants of the country, who were very numerous. They also represented their immediate neighbours as a very malignant race, who lived in large subterraneous recesses: and when they were made to understand that it was our design to proceed to the sea, they dissuaded us from prosecuting our intention, as we should certainly become a sacrifice to the savage spirit of the natives. These people they described as possessing iron, arms, and utensils, which they procured from their neighbours to the westward, and were obtained by a commercial progress from people like ourselves, who brought them in great canoes.’
P. 245.

‘ I now proceeded to request the native, whom I had particularly selected, to commence his information, by drawing a sketch of the country upon a large piece of bark, and he immediately entered on the work, frequently appealing to, and sometimes asking the advice of, those around him. He described the river as running to the east of south, receiving many rivers, and every six or eight leagues encumbered with falls and rapids, some of which were very dangerous, and six of them impracticable. The carrying-places he represented as of great length, and passing over hills and mountains. He depicted the lands of three other tribes, in succession, who spoke different languages. Beyond them he knew nothing either of the river or country, only that it was still a long way to the sea; and that, as he had

heard, there was a lake, before they reached the water, which the natives did not drink. As far as his knowledge of the river extended, the country on either side was level, in many places without wood, and abounding in red deer, and some of a small fallow kind. Few of the natives, he said, would come to the banks for some time; but that at a certain season they would arrive there in great numbers, to fish. They now procured iron, brass, copper, and trinkets, from the westward; but formerly these articles were obtained from the lower parts of the river, though in small quantities. A knife was produced which had been brought from that quarter. The blade was ten inches long, and an inch and an half broad, but with a very blunted edge. The handle was of horn. We understood that this instrument had been obtained from white men, long before they had heard that any came to the westward. One very old man observed, that as long as he could remember, he was told of white people to the southward; and that he had heard, though he did not vouch for the truth of the report, that one of them had made an attempt to come up the river, and was destroyed.' p. 253.

The difficulties which appeared to obstruct the progress down the river, and the want of provisions for so extensive an expedition, induce our author to return to the point, where an overland voyage to the Pacific would be most easy. This, however, involves him in many distresses, from which he is relieved, in part by accident, but chiefly by his own firmness, his spirit, and presence of mind. In the detail of these events, we cannot engage. They build another canoe, at an island in the river, in latitude $53^{\circ} 3'$; and west longitude, $122^{\circ} 48'$.

The remainder of the journey was impeded by fewer difficulties. It lay over high mountains, where, in July, snow, especially when drifted, still remained; and the weather was occasionally very cold. They at last arrive within three days' journey of the sea, and meet with tribes more numerous and more civilised; but who seem to have a superstitious abhorrence of animal food; and feed on fish—chiefly, at this time, salmon—with which their river abounds. The customs of one of the tribes, through whose territories they pass, respecting sepulture, are too curious to be overlooked.

' We now left a small lake on our left, then crossed a creek running out of it, and at one in the afternoon came to an house, of the same construction and dimensions as have already been mentioned, but the materials were much better prepared and finished. The timber was squared on two sides, and the bark taken off the two others; the ridge pole was also shaped in the same manner, extending about eight or ten feet beyond the gable end, and supporting a shed over the door: the end of it was carved into the similitude of a snake's head. Several hieroglyphics and figures of a similar workmanship, and painted with red earth, decorated the interior of the building. The

inhabitants had left the house but a short time, and there were several bags or bundles in it, which I did not suffer to be disturbed. Near it were two tombs, surrounded in a neat manner with boards, and covered with bark. Beside them several poles had been erected, one of which was squared, and all of them painted. From each of them were suspended several rolls or parcels of bark, and our guide gave the following account of them; which, as far as we could judge from our imperfect knowledge of the language, and the incidental errors of interpretation, appeared to involve two different modes of treating their dead; or it might be one and the same ceremony, which we did not distinctly comprehend: at all events, it is the practice of these people to burn the bodies of their dead, except the larger bones, which are rolled up in bark and suspended from poles, as I have already described. According to the other account, it appeared that they actually bury their dead; and when another of the family dies, the remains of the person who was last interred are taken from the grave and burned, as has been already mentioned; so that the members of a family are thus successively buried and burned, to make room for each other; and one tomb proves sufficient for a family through succeeding generations.' P. 307.

Our travelers soon meet with those who had traded with Europeans; but, on the whole, their circumstances and situation were not greatly changed. As they approach the sea, the natives are thievish, inhospitable, and treacherous. At length, however, they reach the Pacific, at Vancouver's Point Menzies; and extend their voyage to the western check of the same navigator's Cascade Canal. Their ultimate longitude, carefully ascertained, was $128^{\circ} 2'$ west of Greenwich; their latitude, $52^{\circ} 20' 48''$.

The return was not marked by any very uncommon circumstances. At what is called Friendly Village, the first of any importance that occurred on their approach to the sea, they are again received with kindness, and have opportunity for some observation. Our author thinks that the inhabitants he surveyed occupy this spot only during the salmon season; and one trait, very singular in savage life, we shall copy.

'From the very little I could discover of their government, it is altogether different from any political regulation which had been remarked by me among the savage tribes. It is on this river alone that one man appears to have an exclusive and hereditary right to what was necessary to the existence of those who are associated with him. I allude to the salmon weir, or fishing place, the sole right to which confers on the chief an arbitrary power. Those embankments could not have been formed without a very great and associated labour; and, as might be supposed, on the condition that those who assisted in constructing it should enjoy a participating right in the advantages to be derived from it. Nevertheless, it evidently appeared to me, that the chief's power over it, and the people, was unlimited, and without con-

trol. No one could fish without his permission, or carry home a larger portion of what he had caught, than was set apart for him. No one could build an house without his consent; and all his commands appeared to be followed with implicit obedience. The people at large seemed to be on a perfect equality, while the strangers among them were obliged to obey the commands of the natives in general, or quit the village. They appear to be of a friendly disposition, but they are subject to sudden gusts of passion, which are as quickly composed; and the transition is instantaneous, from violent irritation to the most tranquil demeanor. Of the many tribes of savage people whom I have seen, these appear to be the most susceptible of civilization. They might soon be brought to cultivate the little ground about them which is capable of it. There is a narrow border of a rich black soil, on either side of the river, over a bed of gravel, which would yield any grain or fruit, that are common to similar latitudes in Europe.' p. 374.

Such are nearly the circumstances and events which occurred in Mr. Mackenzie's very adventurous tour, in which we must equally admire his intelligence, his spirit, and perseverance. A geographical survey of the British dominions, in these high latitudes, follows, which is not sufficiently clear to be detailed in a briefer abstract, nor so important as to tempt us to enlarge. In short, the whole prospect, as well in a political as in a physical view, is barren and dreary. One or two passages we shall transcribe, chiefly as supporting some opinions which we offered many years since.

'It is further to be observed, that these mountains, from Cook's entry to the Columbia, extend from six to eight degrees in breadth easterly; and that along their eastern skirts is a narrow strip of very marshy, boggy, and uneven ground, the outer edge of which produces coal and bitumen: these I saw on the banks of Mackenzie's River, as far north as latitude 66. I also discovered them in my second journey, at the commencement of the rocky mountains in 56. north latitude, and 120. west longitude; and the same was observed by Mr. Fidler, one of the servants of the Hudson's-Bay-Company, at the source of the south branch of the Saskatchewan, in about latitude 52. north, and longitude 112½. west. Next to this narrow belt are immense plains, or meadows, commencing in a point at about the junction of the River of the Mountain with Mackenzie's River, widening as they continue east and south, till they reach the Red River at its confluence with the Assiniboin River, from whence they take a more southern direction, along the Mississippi-towards Mexico. Adjoining to these plains is a broken country, composed of lakes, rocks, and soil.' p. 402.

The following remarks are peculiarly valuable and important.

'It has been frequently advanced, that the difference of clearing away the wood has had an astonishing influence in meliorating the cli-

mate in the former: but I am not disposed to assent to that opinion in the extent which it proposes to establish, when I consider the very trifling proportion of the country cleared, compared with the whole. The employment of the axe may have had some inconsiderable effect; but I look to other causes. I myself observed in a country, which was in an absolute state of nature, that the climate is improving; and this circumstance was confirmed to me by the native inhabitants of it. Such a change, therefore, must proceed from some predominating operation in the system of the globe which is beyond my conjecture, and, indeed, above my comprehension, and may, probably, in the course of time, give to America the climate of Europe. It is well known, indeed, that the waters are decreasing there, and that many lakes are draining and filling up by the earth which is carried into them from the higher lands by the rivers: and this may have some partial effect.

‘ The climate on the west coast of America assimilates much more to that of Europe in the same latitudes: I think very little difference will be found, except such as proceeds from the vicinity of high mountains covered with snow. This is an additional proof that the difference in the temperature of the air proceeds from the cause already mentioned.

‘ Much has been said, and much more still remains to be said on the peopling of America. On this subject I shall confine myself to one or two observations, and leave my readers to draw their inferences from them.

‘ The progress of the inhabitants of the country immediately under our observation, which is comprised within the line of latitude 45. north, is as follows: that of the Esquimaux, who possess the sea coast from the Atlantic through Hudson’s Straits and Bay, round to Mackenzie’s River, (and I believe further) is known to be westward: they never quit the coast, and agree in appearance, manners, language, and habits with the inhabitants of Greenland. The different tribes whom I describe under the name of Algonquins and Knisteneaux, but originally the same people, were the inhabitants of the Atlantic coast, and the banks of the river St. Laurence and adjacent countries: their progress is westerly, and they are even found west and north, as far as Athabasca. On the contrary, the Chepewyans, and the numerous tribes who speak their language, occupy the whole space between the Knisteneaux country and that of the Esquimaux, stretching behind the natives of the coast of the Pacific, to latitude 52. north, on the river Columbia. Their progress is easterly; and, according to their own traditions, they came from Siberia; agreeing in dress and manner with the people now found upon the coast of Asia.

‘ Of the inhabitants of the coast of the Pacific Ocean we know little more than that they are stationary there. The Nadowasis or Assiniboins, as well as the different tribes not particularly described, inhabiting the plains on and about the source and banks of the Saskatchewan and Assiniboin rivers, are from the southward, and their progress is north-west.’ p. 405.

The remainder of the volume relates to the fur-trade, the

inland navigation of the American continent, and the rights of the Hudson's-Bay Company. On these we shall not any further enlarge. We have already engaged sufficiently on the subject, and shall dismiss the present work with remarking, that, though offering no new or splendid discovery, nor bringing back any peculiarly valuable object of commerce, it, on the whole, adds greatly to our geographical knowledge, and tells, perhaps, the sad tale, that the whole of this northern continent may be resigned without a sigh, or even the slightest regret.

ART. III.—*Home's History of the Rebellion in the Year 1745.*
(Continued from Vol. XXXV. p. 153.)

WE resume this history, with some degree of self-condemnation at the long interval which has elapsed since we first noticed it. Our article left prince Charles* at Edinburgh, in possession of the capital of the Scottish kingdom. We gave a glance at the general character of the work, the colloquial language in which the events are described, and the want of that comprehensive precision, those philosophical reflexions, which should have been the chief object of the historian, whose prototype, in the fond views of his admirers, was Sallust.

When we reflect, indeed, on the time which has intervened between the date of the transactions and the publication of the narrative—when we consider that every difference of a political nature is now done away—we are surprised that any difficulty could have remained on these points. Yet we perceive, or think we perceive, in the jejuneness of the narrative, and the paucity of its reflexions, that the author still feels 'the fires scarcely concealed under their ashes'—that he yet walks over burning ploughshares, and measures every step with a peculiar, a studied caution. The work, it has been said, has been long under his hands; and repeated revision may have damped its ardor. It is recorded of an ancient nation, that they deliberated both when sober and when intoxicated, that their determinations might want neither discretion nor spirit. May we not suppose that this history has shared a little of our author's attention, if not in these extremes of animal spirits, at least in very different states of mind, but that the sober spirit has prevailed?

* At this moment, we need scarcely make an apology for applying the title of prince to the Pretender: he was the son of an acknowledged king; and all the pretensions of himself and family are now at an end. RAY.

The first appearance of Charles demands our attention.

' About ten o'clock the main body of the rebels marching by Duddingston (to avoid being fired upon by the castle) entered the King's Park, and halted in the hollow between the hills, under the peak called Arthur's Seat. By and by Charles came down to the Duke's Walk, accompanied by the Highland chiefs, and other commanders of his army.

' The park was full of people, (amongst whom was the author of this history,) all of them impatient to see this extraordinary person. The figure and presence of Charles Stuart were not ill suited to his lofty pretensions. He was in the prime of youth*, tall and handsome, of a fair complexion; he had a light coloured periwig with his own hair combed over the front: he wore the Highland dress, that is a tartan short coat without the plaid, a blue bonnet on his head, and on his breast the star of the order of St. Andrew. Charles stood some time in the park to shew himself to the people; and then, though he was very near the palace, mounted his horse, either to render himself more conspicuous, or because he rode well, and looked graceful on horseback.

' The Jacobites were charmed with his appearance: they compared him to Robert the Bruce, whom he resembled (they said) in his figure as in his fortune. The whigs looked upon him with other eyes. They acknowledged that he was a goodly person; but they observed, that even in that triumphant hour, when he was about to enter the palace of his fathers, the air of his countenance was languid and melancholy: that he looked like a gentleman and a man of fashion, but not like a hero or a conqueror. Hence they formed their conclusions that the enterprize was above the pitch of his mind; and that his heart was not great enough for the sphere in which he moved. When Charles came to the palace, he dismounted, and walked along the piazza, towards the apartment of the duke of Hamilton. When he was near the door, which stood open to receive him, a gentleman stepped out of the crowd, drew his sword, and raising his arm aloft, walked up stairs before Charles.' p. 99.

On the proclamation of the regent, it is observed, that—

' the populace of a great city, who huzza for any thing that brings them together, huzzaed; and a number of ladies in the windows strained their voices with acclamation, and their arms with waving white handkerchiefs in honour of the day.

' These demonstrations of joy, amongst people of condition, were chiefly confined to one sex; few gentlemen were to be seen on the streets, or in the windows; and even amongst the inferior people, many shewed their dislike by a stubborn silence.

' Whilst the heralds were proclaiming king James at Edinburgh, sir John Cope was landing his troops at Dunbar: the two regiments

* Born at Rome on the 31st of December, in the year 1720, he was in the 25th year of his age. While Charles was standing in the Duke's Walk, one of the spectators endeavoured to measure shoulders with him; and said he was more than 5 feet 10 inches high.'

of dragoons had come there on the morning of the 17th in a condition not very respectable*.' P. 102.

The battle of Preston is related with great perspicuity and precision; and, indeed, the authenticity of the details, in general, is sufficiently proved, from their consistency, and the names of many of the inferior actors. The indecision of sir John Cope was highly reprehensible; but the artillery-men were inexperienced. They were soon intimidated; and the panic was alike communicated to the cavalry and infantry. The event is well known to have been deeply disastrous to the loyalist cause; and, properly employed, it might have been greatly useful to Charles.

It has been generally supposed that the rebel cause was ruined by the inactivity which followed this battle. Mr. Home, however, defends the prince, on account of the inadequate force which he possessed. Some of the Highlanders had retired with the plunder; and the address of president Forbes had prevented the junction of other clans, who were expected from the same quarter. It may, indeed, be observed, that the utmost force which the adherents to the prince could collect, was never sufficient to conquer an *undivided* kingdom: but, at that time, it was greatly divided; and the splendor of the victory would have given spirit to his determined partisans, and have decided the resolutions of those who were wavering. Success, however, even at last, must certainly have failed: but the contest would have been more violent, and the probability of attaining the end considerably increased. Every friend to good order and humanity will rejoice that this unnatural war was not prolonged.

At length, the rebel army marched, after having received some inconsiderable reinforcements from France, together with others more numerous (but far less so than was expected by the Highlanders). Of the latter, many, in the moment of action, lost their former resolution; and many were persuaded, by the lord president, to distress government no

* The two regiments of dragoons, having retreated from the Colt Bridge, halted some time at Leith, and at Musselburgh, then they went on to a field between Preston Grange and Dauphinston, where they dismounted and prepared to stay all night; but a dragoon seeking forage for his horse between 10 and 11 o'clock, fell into an old coal-pit which was full of water, and made such a noise that the dragoons thought the Highlanders had got amongst them; and mounting their horses, made the best of their way to Dunbar. Colonel Gardner had gone to his own house which was hard by, and locked the door when he went to bed, so that he heard nothing of the matter till next morning, when he rose, and followed his men with a heavy heart; for the road to Dunbar was strewn with swords, pistols, and firelocks, which were gathered together, and carried in covered carts to Dunbar; so that the flight of the two regiments was very little known in the army.'

longer; while many were overawed by the power which he had now assembled in favour of the king.

At this part of the story, it seems proper to mention the number of the rebel army, with some other particulars in which this Highland army differed from all other armies. When the rebels began their march to the southward, they were not 6000 men complete; they exceeded 5500, of whom 4 or 500 were cavalry; and of the whole number, not quite 4000 were real Highlanders, who formed the clan regiments, and were indeed the strength of the rebel army. All the regiments of foot wore the Highland garb: they were thirteen in number, many of them very small. Besides the two troops of horse-guards, there were lord Pitsligo's and Strathallan's horse, lord Kilmarnock's horse grenadiers, and a troop of light horse or hussars to scour the country and procure intelligence. The pay of a captain in this army was half a crown a day; the pay of a lieutenant two shillings; the pay of an ensign one shilling and sixpence; and every private man received sixpence a day, without deduction. In the clan regiments, every company had two captains, two lieutenants, and two ensigns. The front rank of each regiment consisted of persons who called themselves gentlemen, and were paid one shilling a day; these gentlemen were better armed than the men in the ranks behind them, and had all of them targets, which many of the others had not.

Every clan regiment was commanded by the chief, or his son, or his brother (the nearest of kin, whoever he was), according to the custom of clanship. In the day of battle, each company of a Highland regiment furnished two of their best men as a guard to the chief. In the choice of this guard, consanguinity was considered; and the chief (whose post was the centre of the regiment, by the colours) stood between two brothers, or two cousins german. The train of artillery which belonged to this army of invaders consisted of general Cope's field pieces, taken at the battle of Preston, and of some pieces of a larger caliber, brought over in the ships from France, amounting in all to 13 pieces of cannon.' P. 137.

Never was a force so inadequate to the design; and, at this distance of time, when cool reflexion enables us to judge with calmness and precision, can we suppose that any degree of disaffection in the kingdom would have enabled Charles to attain his great object? Money, stores, camp equipage, were all wanting; and English farmers or manufacturers—for from this class the ranks must have been filled—could neither repose without tents, nor be contented with the slender fare which to the Highlander was a luxury. Though some had joined, others ought to have been expected to rise in opposition; and the latter, with superior advantages, would have been soon more powerful, perhaps more numerous. Misfortune, the baleful attendant upon Charles's house, had not yet emptied her quiver; and this rash unadvised expedition probably hastened its ruin. It began inauspiciously; and ended in disappointment. Few united with him; and

the army returned, after having eluded the king's troops, and advanced to Derby.

A mystery still hangs over the first step of the retreat. In this and another instance, it is said to have been proposed by lord George Murray, and urged as the general opinion of the chiefs, without a council. In both, Charles, on being applied to at a subsequent period, declares that a council was held, in which the retreat was decided upon. In opposition to Charles's declarations, however, we have the assertion, in the present instance, of Mr. Hay—who acted as his secretary, and in whose presence the subsequent retreat from Derby was first proposed to Charles—who affirms, that he received it with indignation: the other report, on the contrary, rests on the authority of lord George Murray himself.—Such is history!—After some examination and inquiry, we are inclined to distrust Charles's account. In his advanced state, vexation, disappointment, and intoxication, had destroyed his faculties. He might wish it not to be remembered that he had been treated with disrespect; and we may more easily believe that he was forgetful, or unwilling, to submit to a humiliating avowal, than that Mr. Hay could have invented the circumstances which he states at length.—Did lord George Murray act with Charles to betray him? Impossible: yet the attentive reader will sometimes feel an involuntary suggestion of this kind. In the present instance, to march to London, with little appearance of support from intestine disaffection, was madness; it was desperation in its last state; but, if successful, it would have been heroism in its most exalted.

Much of the merit of the present history consists in the minor details, which the more general historian disregards. These are related with great perspicuity and precision: but we need not follow them. The skirmish at Clifton, on the return of the rebels, is described, from lord George Murray's Memoirs, to have terminated in the prince's favour. We shall, however, hasten on to the battle of Falkirk.

The event of the battle of Falkirk is known to have been disastrous: yet a part of each army seems to have been defeated; and the termination was in favour of the rebels, chiefly from the subsequent conduct of general Hawley, in destroying the tents, and leaving his cannon and ammunition. The numbers were nearly equal: but, either despising the efforts of the Highlanders in opposition to cavalry, or fearing that the rebels meant to escape, general Hawley ordered about eight hundred dragoons to attack eight thousand foot. The horse were, of course, repulsed; and the first and second line of the left did not stand an attack with the broad sword. On the right, a ravine was inter-

posed; and Barrel's (strangely called in this work *Burrel's*), with a part of two other regiments, stood firm, and repulsed the rebels on that side. The pursuers, on the other side, were, however, equally in disorder. The Highlanders, nevertheless, kept the field; and general Hawley retreated disgracefully.

' Every person who reads this account, or any other account of the battle of Falkirk, will be apt to think it very strange, that general Hawley should order * 700, or 800 dragoons to attack 8000 foot drawn up in two lines. It is said and generally believed, that general Hawley, when he heard that the Highlanders were about to cross the Carron at Dunipace, did not think they were coming to attack his army, but imagined that they were going to give him the slip, and march back to England: that in this conceit he ordered his dragoons and foot to march up the hill, intercept the rebels, and force them to come to an action. Hence the conflict happened upon a piece of ground which he had never viewed, and was a field of battle exceedingly disadvantageous to his troops. As for the order given to the officer who commanded the dragoons, to attack the whole Highland army, it is proper to inform the reader, that general Hawley had been major of Evans's dragoons at the battle of Sheriffmuir, where that regiment, with the Scots Greys, led by the duke of Argyle and Greenwich, getting over a morass (which the intense frost of one night had rendered passable), attacked† the flank of the rebel army, rode down, and drove off the field several regiments of Highlanders.

' When the news of the battle of Preston came to the army in Flanders, general Hawley reprobated the conduct of Mr. Cope, and said in a company of officers, "that *he* knew the Highlanders, they were good militia, but he was certain that they could not stand against a charge of dragoons who attacked them well." Lieutenant-colonel Hepburn‡ was one of the company of officers that heard this speech of general Hawley's, and he allows his name to be mentioned with this anecdote, which accounts for the order given to colonel Ligonier.

' In this ill-conducted battle, many brave officers of the king's army fell§. P. 175.

* * The order sent to colonel Ligonier, was carried by Mr. Stuart Mackenzie, lord Bute's brother (afterwards lord privy seal for Scotland) who acted that day as aide-de-camp to general Hawley. The colonel and Mr. Mackenzie were intimate friends; and when the colonel received general Hawley's order, he said it was the most extraordinary order that ever was given. The author of this history having frequently conversed with Mr. Mackenzie concerning the battle of Falkirk, shewed him, many years after the rebellion, the account which is here given of what passed between the colonel and him, when he delivered general Hawley's order. Mr. Mackenzie hesitated a little, and said, he was not sure whether or not he had told Mr. Home, that colonel Ligonier said, it was the most extraordinary order that ever was given: but he was very sure the colonel looked as if he thought so.

† The battle of Sheriffmuir was fought on the 13th of November, O. S. in the year 1715, and the Highlanders thought the flank of their army secure.

‡ Lieutenant-colonel of the 6th regiment of dragoons, when he retired from the service.

§ One colonel (sir Robert Monro), three lieutenant colonels, lieutenant colonel

Much blame was attached to the conduct of each party: but, when it was considered that the troops, *now* defeated, were veterans, from the fields of Dettingen and Fontenoy, the fears of the loyal party were alive, and their hopes experienced some depression. The broad-sword, however, was a new weapon; and the soldier had not sufficient confidence in the bayonet, when opposed to it. The conqueror of Quebec contended, that, with a rusty nail on the top of a musket, he would parry off the broad-sword; and, if we mistake not, there was a friendly trial of skill between him and general Frazer, in which Wolfe kept him at a distance. It is a subject we shall soon resume; and offer, at the same time, some remarks on the cause of the rebels' success in this action.

We now proceed to the battle of Culloden—an action which has raised the duke of Cumberland's military talents so high, that even the convention of Closter-Seven cannot, in the annals of military history, obscure them. The army was drawn up with peculiar precision; the horse, foot, and artillery, were united, bearing on a single point; each regiment of the second line was formed on the opening of the two preceding it, so as to be able to succour either; while the reserve was admirably calculated to support any defeat in a given point. Hence the first generals have considered the whole as a model of arrangement. The duke, we apprehend, always declared that he had taken the model from his military tutor, Königsegg, who beat the Turks by this mode of order. Be this as it may, we meant chiefly to observe, that the principle which determined the former actions, was practised in this before us, and might have been successful, notwithstanding the excellence of the arrangement. As it is a point not adverted to by any military historian, and as it is connected with some disputed circumstances in this battle, we may be allowed to enlarge on it: our observations will not be extensive.

If we look at the battles of Preston and of Falkirk, we shall find that the rebels confined their attack to one wing. On this they threw their whole force; and, if they conquered it, they were able to outflank the line. At Preston, this succeeded by the panic of the artillery; at Falkirk, by the first error of general Hawley, in attacking the whole army with 800 horse, the defeat of which intimidated the right.

Whitney (of the regiment late Gardner's), lieutenant colonel Bigger of Monro's regiment, lieutenant colonel Powell of Cholmondeley's; five captains of Wolfe's, and one lieutenant; four captains of Blackney's and two lieutenants, were killed, with about 300 or 400 private men.

* The Highlanders acknowledged that their army lost three captains and four subalterns, with 40 men killed, and twice as many wounded.'

But, *even then*, had he changed the position of the left, and fronted them to their former flank, the rebels might have repented of their violence; for the left of this latter might have easily been checked by cannon across the ravine. This principle, of attacking one part of the line, cannot be too closely kept in view. It has been the source of all our naval victories; and of none more than that off Cape St. Vincent, which gave the title, and added a new wreath of laurels, to the already dignified and victorious commander.

At Culloden, the same attempt was projected: but, to be explicit, we must transcribe the author's narrative.

'The first line of the duke's army consisted of six regiments of foot. The Royal had the right. On their left stood Cholmondely's, Price's, the Scots fusileers, Monro's, and Burrel's. The second line consisted of the same number of regiments. Howard's regiment had the right; on their left stood Fleming's, Ligonier's, Blyth's, Sempill's, and Wolfe's. The reserve consisted of Blakeney's, Battereau's, and Pulteney's. The duke of Kingston's regiment of light horse, and one squadron of lord Cobham's dragoons, were placed on the right of the first line. Lord Mark Ker's regiment of dragoons, and two squadrons of lord Cobham's, on the left. When the king's army came within five or six hundred paces of the rebel army, part of the ground in their front was so soft and boggy, that the horses which drew the cannon sunk; and were obliged to be taken off: the soldiers, slinging their firelocks, dragged the cannon across the bog. As soon as the cannon were brought to firmer ground, two field pieces, short six pounders, were placed in the intervals between the battalions; and colonel Belford of the artillery, who directed the cannon of the duke's army, began to fire upon the rebels, who, for some time, had been firing upon the king's troops from several batteries; but the cannon of the rebels were very ill served, and did little harm*. The duke's artillery did great execution, making lanes through the Highland regiments. The duke of Cumberland, observing the wall on the right flank of the Highland army, ordered colonel Belford to continue the cannonade, with a view to make the Highlanders leave the ground where they stood, and come down to attack his army. During the cannonade, which began a little after one o'clock, and lasted till near two, the duke made several changes in the disposition of his army. *Wolfe's regiment, which stood on the left of the second line, and extended somewhat beyond the left of the first line, was moved from its place (where the men were standing in water up to their ankles) and brought to the left of the first line, where they wheeled to the right, (and formed en potence, as it is called), making a front to the north, so as to fire upon the flank of the rebels, if they should come down to attack the king's army.* The duke, at the same time, ordered two regiments to move up from the reserve, so that Pulteney's regiment stood on the right of the Royal, which had the right of the first line before, and Battereau's regiment stood on the right of Howard's regiment in the second line. His royal highness,

* * One man in Blyth's regiment had his leg carried off by a cannon ball. Not another shot took place.'

after making these changes in the disposition of his army, placed himself between the first and second line, in the front of Howard's regiment.

While these changes were making, colonel Belford observing the body of horse with Charles, ordered two pieces of cannon to be pointed at them; several discharges were made; and some balls broke ground among the horses legs. Charles had his face bespattered with dirt; and one of his servants who stood behind the squadron, with a led horse in his hand, was killed. Meanwhile the cannonade continued, and the Highlanders in the first line, impatient of suffering, without doing any harm to their enemies, grew clamorous to be led on to the attack. A message was sent to Lochel, whose regiment stood next the Athol brigade, desiring that he would represent to lord George Murray the necessity of attacking immediately. While Lochel was speaking with lord George, the Macintosh regiment brake* out from the centre of the first line: and advanced against the regiment opposite to them, which was the 21st. But the fire of the field-pieces, and the small arms of the 21st, made the Macintoshes incline to the right, from whence all the regiments to their right, with one regiment to their left, were coming down to the charge. These regiments, joining together, advanced under a heavy fire of cannon (loaded with grape shot)† and musketry in their front, and a flank fire when they came near Wolfe's regiment. Notwithstanding which they still advanced‡, and attacking sword in hand, broke through Burrel's and Monro's in the first line, and pushed on to the second. In the second line immediately behind Burrel's, stood Sempill's regiment, which during the attack had advanced fifty or sixty paces; and their front rank kneeling and presenting, waited till Burrel's men got out of their way. For the soldiers of Burrel's and Monro's did not run directly back, *but went off behind the battalions on their right*. The Highlanders, who had broke through the first line were got close together, without any interval between one clan and another; and the greater part of them came on directly against Sempill's regiment, which allowed them to come very near, and then gave them a terrible fire, that brought a great many of them to the ground, and made most of those who did not fall turn back. A few, and but a few, still pressed on, desperate and furious, to break into Sempill's regiment, which not a man of them ever did, the foremost falling at the end of the soldiers' bayonets.

Blyth's regiment, which was on the right of Sempill's, gave their fire at the same time, and repulsed those that were advancing against them. When the Highland regiments on the right of their first line made this attack, the regiments on the left, the Farquharsons, and

* * Before the Macintosh regiment moved, Charles had sent an order to lord George Murray to attack; but lord George never received the order, for Maclauchlan, who carried it, in his way to him, was killed by a cannon ball.

† Colonel Belford had ordered his men to load the field pieces with cannon-ball, as long as the Highlanders remained on their ground; but when they advanced to attack the king's army, and came within a proper distance, he ordered his men to load the field-pieces with grape-shot.

‡ The Athol brigade, in advancing, lost thirty-two officers, and was so shattered that it stopt short, and never closed with the king's troops.

the three Macdonald regiments, did not advance at the same time, nor attack in the same manner. They came so near the king's army, as to draw upon themselves some fire from the regiments that were opposite to them, which they returned by a general discharge, and the Macdonalds had drawn their swords to attack in the usual manner; but seeing those regiments, that had attacked sword in hand, repulsed and put to flight*, they also went off. When the Highlanders in the first line gave way, the king's army did not pursue immediately. The regiments of foot, from right to left, were ordered to stand upon the ground where they had fought, and dress their ranks. The horse on the right of the king's army were the first that pursued, and they were very near the Macdonalds, when the Irish piquets came down from their place in the second line, and fired upon the dragoons who halted, and the Macdonalds fell back to the second line. The two lines joined, formed a considerable body of men; but their hearts were broken, and their condition was altogether hopeless and irretrievable: in their front they saw the infantry which had defeated them, and reduced their two lines to one, preparing to advance against them. On their right flank, and somewhat behind them, they saw a body of the duke's cavalry† ready to fall upon them as soon as the infantry should advance.' P. 229.

This is a very clear account; but, we apprehend, not free from even material errors. In fact, Wolfe's regiment was not formed *en potence*, previous to the attack; and Barrel's was not either obliged to give way, to retreat, or file between the other battalions. The rebels, as usual, brought their chief force to the left, consisting of their best troops, and the gentlemen attached to the army. With this they attacked the king's right, and broke Barrel's line. But this regiment did *not* retire: they were mixed, bayonet against

* * The Macdonald officers said, and Macdonald of Morar (eldest cadet of Clanronald) has left it in writing, that their men were affronted at being deprived of the right (the post of honour), which the Macdonalds had at the battles of Preston and Falkirk, and have had, they say, from time immemorial. The duke of Perth, in the battle of Culloden, stood at the head of the Glengary regiment; and hearing the men murmur (for they murmured aloud), said to them, that if the Macdonalds behaved with their usual valour, they would make a right of the left, and he would call himself Macdonald.

† Before the battle began, that is before the Macintosh regiment advanced against the king's army, general Bland, who commanded the duke's cavalry on the left, ordered two companies of the Argyleshire men, and one company of lord Loudon's regiment, to break down the east wall of the inclosure, whose north wall covered the flank of the rebel army. The three companies of foot pulled down the wall, and entering with the dragoons, put to the sword about 100 men, who had been posted in the inclosure to defend the wall. General Bland then ordered the foot to pull down part of the west wall of the inclosure, which they did, and the dragoons getting out upon the muir, formed at a little distance from the rear of the enemy. General Stapleton observing their position, detached from the second line one of lord Lewis Gordon's regiments, commanded by Gordon of Abbachie, who with his men occupied a piece of ground where there was a hollow way between the dragoons and them. General Bland then ordered the Argyleshire men to go close to the north wall, and fire on the flank of the rebels. The Argyleshire men obeyed him, but received a fire which killed two of their captains and an ensign.

broad-sword; and scarcely a man of Barrel's but had his bayonet bent and bloody. It was the duke's own order, in going down—'Mingle with them, my lads! let them feel your force: be steady, and you will conquer.' Wolfe's regiment was certainly formed, *en potence*, in the course of the action; and gave several volleys in the rear of those contending with Barrel's, which lessened the mass, and enabled the latter to clear themselves more successfully. Sempill's, too, when the confusion was lessened, did good service: but that the whole force of the action fell on Barrel's, is sufficiently proved by the number killed and wounded; for, of 310 killed, wounded, and missing, 125 (more than one-third of the whole) were killed and wounded of Barrel's. An account of an eye-witness merits notice, and we shall select it.

'Robert Nairn, an East Lothian gentleman, and nephew of Mr. Hepburn of Keith, (who has been frequently mentioned in the History) was deputy pay-master of the rebel army. At the battle of Culloden, he advanced with the Athol brigade, which lost so many men by the fire of the king's troops, and the field-pieces loaded with grape-shot, that the brigade was not able to go on, and halted.

'Mr. Nairn left the brigade, when it halted, and joining the next regiment, which was Lochell's, he advanced with the Camerons, who attacked Barrel's regiment, which was so completely broken, that Mr. Nairn, some years after the rebellion, told the author of this History, that he saw only two of Barrel's men standing; one of them was a grenadier, who pushed his bayonet into Mr. Nairn's eye, and brought him to the ground, where he lay all night insensible of his condition, for he had received a good many wounds as he advanced with the brigade. Next day he was carried to Inverness, and by the care of some medical students (his companions at the university) who had been brought from Edinburgh to assist the regimental surgeons in case of a battle, his wounds were cured, and by their help he was enabled to make his escape from Inverness, and get to Edinburgh.' Addendum.

Mr. Nairn seems to have come down at a late hour; and was, by his own account, soon disabled. We cannot, therefore, depend on his description of the state of the regiment. More than one person of Barrel's, still alive, give a very different statement.

We have engaged at length in this question, as constituting a brilliant portion of military history, and an important national concern. It is a subject which has been long familiar to us; and we should not have committed ourselves in confident assertions, without just grounds. Some further remarks on this history will be communicated in our next.

(To be continued.)

ART. IV.—*Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, to the North Cape. By Joseph Acerbi. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 451.)*

WE promised to pursue this work in another article, designing briefly to notice the account of Lapland by Leems, which would not probably occur to us on any other occasion. We promised, however, somewhat unadvisedly; for we did not, at the moment, recollect the æra of Leems's publication, nor that different extracts from it had already appeared in the English language. To many of our readers, it may be, however, unknown; and a short account of it will perhaps not be, on the whole, disagreeable. We shall pass it over somewhat cursorily.

The Laplanders are a Scythian nation, though short in stature, and not very capable of great and continued exertions, except in the occupations to which they are accustomed. Their immediate predecessors were the Samoeids. Their language approaches the Finnish, and is not very unlike the Norwegian or the Hebrew. In fact, it is not immediately derived from either, but is a branch of some original dialect, which has divaricated in so many limbs.

‘The children of the Laplanders are remarkably fat and chubby, which appears not only in their faces, but other parts of their bodies. This disposition to increase in flesh, however, is less perceptible as they grow up. The Laplander is of a swarthy and dark complexion, his hair is black and short, his mouth wide, and his cheeks hollow, with a chin somewhat long and pointed: his eyes are weak and watery, which in some degree proceeds from the constant smoke he endures whilst at home, in his tent or hut; and may likewise be attributed to the snows which, during winter, are constantly driving in his face, whilst he is abroad and engaged in hunting upon the mountains, which afford him no object to fix his eyes upon but what is glaring with whiteness. That this weakness of his eyes proceeds from these causes, and especially the latter, is highly probable, from the circumstance, that a man often loses his sight for several days after his return from hunting.’ Vol. ii. p. 151.

‘They possess a degree of agility which is really wonderful, and their bodies are supple and pliant beyond conception. It is surprising what a number of them are able to stow themselves within a space which we should not imagine would hold half or one third of that quantity. They will sit in the closest contact with each other, their bodies supported by their heels, or their entire weight bearing upon the toes. The American Indians, or savages as they are termed, use the same posture, and the ingenious historical painter, who has represented the treaty of the great Penn with the Indians at the settlement of that flourishing colony which now bears his name, has not

omitted to embellish his picture with the figure of an Indian in this extraordinary attitude.

‘The Laplanders descend the steep sides of a mountain, when covered with snow and ice, with incredible velocity. They make use of a particular kind of snow shoe, differing greatly from that which bears the same name in the northern parts of America: it is a piece of wood of some length, curved before, and turning upwards behind, to the middle of which the foot is fastened; and whereas the snow shoe is calculated for security to prevent a man from sinking into the snow, this wooden shoe or skate, called in the Danish tongue *skie*, answers the purpose both of security and expedition. Accordingly the Laplander slides along with such swiftness, that the air whistles in his ears, and his hair becomes erect with the motion; and yet so dexterous is he in the management of his body, that be his impulse ever so violent, he can take up his cap, if he chances to let it fall, or any thing else that happens to lie in his way, without stopping his course. The children, as soon as they are able to walk, climb up the sides of the mountains, and exercise themselves in the use of these skates.’ Vol. ii. p. 154.

From their infancy, they are accustomed to exertions of every kind, and, from necessity, inured to cold and hunger. They are truly religious; and their conduct is, in general, strictly moral:—the only exception is a little commercial *finesse*.

The descriptions of the dress and habitations of the Laplanders scarcely admit of abridgement, and are not subjects very interesting at this time. Their diet is chiefly the rein-deer's milk. They eat, however, animal food of every kind, except pork. Fish dried and dipped in train-oil, without dressing, is also no uncommon aliment. Bread is eaten very sparingly, and not fermented. Their luxuries are the inner part of fir-tree, smoked and dipped in train-oil; the root and leaves of angelica, and berries, mellowed by remaining, during the winter, in the snow; but, above all, tobacco. Their household furniture is scanty and unexpensive, to be removed without trouble or inconvenience.

The description of the rein-deer, and their indispensable utility to the Laplander, is sufficiently extensive and satisfactory. The chief circumstances are, however, well known: some facts, which are less so, we shall transcribe.

‘The greatest enemy of the rein-deer is the wolf, and it requires the utmost diligence and circumspection of the people to guard and defend their herds against the insidious attacks of this inveterate and cunning foe. They endeavour to affright and keep him off by means of stakes driven into the earth, having pieces of worn-out and tattered tunicks and other garments hanging on them: but it is chiefly during any violent storm that they have occasion to be most vigilant; for at that time this depredator is on the look out for an opportunity to invade the timorous herd: in the moment of alarm, every one of the

Laplander's household is then put in motion, some to look to the rein-deer, whilst others make a loud noise by beating with sticks against a sledge, brought without the tent for that purpose: and, indeed, there is a necessity for the greatest precaution on the part of the Laplanders, because the tame rein-deer is so simple an animal, that if not carefully protected, it becomes an easy prey to the wolf. No sooner is that voracious beast discovered by the herd, than the silly creatures, instead of running towards the tents, and putting themselves under the safeguard of men, fly towards the woods, where some are overtaken and killed by the wolf, who is observed to use his utmost endeavours to keep betwixt them and the tents when he finds them feeding at a distance. In this pursuit the wolf has the advantage of the rein-deer when they are running down hill, and he is sure to overtake and seize it: but it is not the same up hill. If the wolf catch the rein-deer by the haunch, it often happens that the deer escapes; and when he obtains his prey, it is generally by fastening on its throat, by which means he strangles the poor animal in a short time. The missionary says, he saw six at one time lying on the snow, killed by wolves who had been driven away on the alarm being given: upon examination of the carcasses, no wound appeared to have been inflicted, so dexterously had these destructive enemies effected their purpose. It is observable, that the wolf never devours his prey on the spot where he kills it, but drags it away to some distance; and it is further remarked, the missionary tells us, that in devouring it, he places the head towards the east; at least, he says, the skeletons are always found in the woods placed in that position. I cannot say that I give entire credit to this report: probably the good missionary has been misinformed. Whilst the wolves are on the hunt for their prey, they appear always to be accompanied by a number of crows and ravens, and the Laplanders are commonly apprized of the wolf's approach by the clamour of these birds. It has been noticed, that such rein-deer as were fastened by ropes to a stake have been spared, whilst others that were at liberty have been carried off: this must be owing to a fear conceived by the wolf at the sight of the animal's tether, or to some similar cause; for the like has not happened, when the deer has broken loose and betaken himself to flight.' Vol. ii. p. 195.

The description of the wandering Laplanders is necessarily more concise; and the great singularity is, that, by night as well as day, they can find the spot to which they are bound, though the ground is one undistinguished sheet of snow, and the sky clouded by a constant storm. The good missionary mentions but one fatal accident which had happened during his ten years' residence among the Laplanders.

Among the quadrupeds of Lapland, the wild rein-deer are particularly mentioned, and the manner of hunting them minutely described. Bears are said to live chiefly on berries and grass; so that they eat animal food only from necessity, and in the winter. Foxes are common in Lapland, as well as the glutton and beaver. The idle tales of

the former of the two last, squeezing itself between two trees, to disgorge its superabundant meal, and of the extraordinary sagacity of the latter, are generally disbelieved. Other quadrupeds are not so peculiar as to require our notice.

Of the birds, the Lapland woodcock is remarkable; for, though it inhabits this country only in the summer, its winter habitation is not known. The only birds that stay in Lapland during the winter, are the strix and tetrao.

‘ I have, in the course of this work, mentioned more than once the songs of the birds, with which the woods of Lapland re-echo. I have often been astonished to hear in these places birds sing very charmingly, which I had before considered as mute, and totally deprived by nature of all vocal power. The *motacilla trochilus* of Linnæus, which comes to Italy about autumn, is in Lombardy called *tui*, because its short and abrupt cry bears a resemblance to this sound: but the same bird may justly be termed the nightingale of the north. It settles on the most lofty branches of the birch-trees, and makes the air resound with accents melodious, bold, and full of harmony. This is likewise the case with the *emberiza geniclos*, which has a clear and strong voice, and animates with its musical notes the shades of the alder and willow-trees, that grow by the sides of the brooks and rivers.

‘ But there is another bird, which more highly deserves our admiration, as it surpasses all the rest by the beauty of its plumage and the sweetness of its voice: this is the *motacilla Suezica*. It lives in the bushes of marshy places, and particularly likes to perch on the dwarf-birch (*betula nana*, Linn.); its flight is generally low: it makes its nest in the moss, and lays between five and seven eggs, of a greenish colour, nearly resembling that of the moss, with which they are surrounded. It feeds on insects and worms, and I have seen several of them with caterpillars in their beaks, which were destined for their young. The Laplanders call this bird *saddan kiallinen*, which signifies *hundred tongues*, and expresses the nature of its song; for this constantly varies, and is an imitation of the voices of almost all the other birds. To the beauty of its notes it joins that of its feathers, which are of a sky blue colour, bordered about the throat with a black line, and after that with one of a rusty appearance. It seems as if nature, charmed with the melodious excellence of the song, had been willing to embellish even the outside of the organ that produced it, in order to render her work quite perfect.’ Vol. ii. p. 224.

The missionary gives this bird the preference to the nightingale, as less shrill, and perhaps, on the whole, possessing a greater variety of voice. Our author particularly describes the Lapland owl, as well as the Lapland crow; and figures of each are subjoined.

The fishes of Lapland offer little novelty, and no remarks of importance. Mr. Acerbi describes the whale as particularly voracious: it is however, by many, scarcely ranked among the animals of prey. The list of insects is peculiarly

extensive ; and a great number of the rarest species are engraved in three plates. A list of the plants most peculiar to Lapland, in order to direct and concentrate the attention of the botanist, for himself or friends, is added. Many seem not to occur in the *Flora Laponica* ; but we are unable to pursue the subject minutely.

‘ The berry of the *rubus arcticus*, when sufficiently ripened, is superior in fragrance and flavour to the strawberry and raspberry, and to all fruit of the same kind, even what we have in Italy. A small plateful would scent an apartment with a more exquisite sweetness than any perfume I know of. It is singular that so delicious a production should be found in the north. They preserve it in Sweden, and it makes one of the most delicate sweetmeats. Linnæus speaks of this fruit in high terms of praise, and says, that it often refreshed him in his travels through Lapland, when he was overwhelmed with fatigue.

‘ The *rubus chamæmorus* is also used for preserves. It grows plentifully in Lapland, especially in marshy situations. The berry of this plant is yellowish, and nearly of the same shape as the raspberry, but larger in size, and more insipid in taste. We, however, thought it delicious when we found it in our walks through the bogs of Lapland.

‘ I am of opinion that the *diapensia Lapponica*, and the *azalea procumbens*, should be reckoned among the indigenous plants, properly so called. I have found both in flower on the top of very high mountains, where all other vegetation seemed to cease, and nothing was to be seen besides the *lichen rangiferinus*.’ Vol. ii. p. 261.

From Tornea to Ketkemando, the travelers meet with firs, pines, and birches. Beyond Ketkemando, the firs disappear. From Kautokeino to the mountains, the pines are lost ; and nothing but birches are seen, except about Alten, where a few pines again are found.

The list of minerals is extensive, and communicated on the authority of M. Hyelm, from the specimens contained in the collection of the commissioners of the mines at Stockholm. We wish the appellations of some mineralogist later than Mr. Kirwan had been preferred. We trust that, in future, every mineralogist will give the names adopted by prince Gallitzin, in the late edition of his *Recueil de Noms appropriés en Minéralogie*, as that collection contains all the synonyms, and is adapted to the nomenclature of Haüy*.

On the subject of manufactures and customs, we have little to remark. We were surprised to hear that music and dancing were unknown to the Laplanders in any festival ; that ‘ they are not even acquainted with the use of any one

* We propose to give some account of this very useful work in our next Appendix.

musical instrument,' and 'incapable of learning to sing in tune.'

Of the diseases and remedies of the Laplanders, we shall say little. The tooth-ach they have lately attempted to cure with seal's blood, drank warm: for incipient cataract, they insert a living *pediculus humanus* beneath the eye-lid, whose irritation they think will destroy the membrane. It may be effectual, by exciting inflammation. The sinew of the fore-leg of a rein-deer is applied to strained ancles. This is not very distant from the medicines employed by their more enlightened neighbours a hundred and fifty years since. Their former religion was idolatrous; and a curious, but not very interesting, list of their divinities, with their appropriate offices and abodes, is subjoined. The Lapland sacrifices, and the pretensions of the Laplanders to magic, are next noticed. The Laplander's attachment to his country is not to be shaken—perhaps with reason, as those who have been brought thence have soon died. Observations on the climate of different places, from the flowering of plants and the appearance of the birds, conclude the volume.—The appendix contains only specimens of the Lapland and Finland music, with the diary of the author's journey.

On the whole, we have perused this work with satisfaction: yet doubts have occasionally arisen; and suspicions will always intrude, where we converse with an author through the medium of an interpreter, however faithful he may be. We often perceive the marks of two pens; and sometimes we suspect that we can draw the line between them. This, however, must be suspicion only. The errors, if any exist, are certainly not numerous; and the information to be obtained from these volumes is equally valuable and extensive.

ART. V. — *General Zoölogy, or Systematic Natural History.*
By George Shaw, M. D. F. R. S. &c. (Continued from p. 43,
of our present Volume.)

THE order of serpents is peculiarly distinguished by the want of feet; and their locomotion is owing to their scales contracting over each other and again expanding, or to the contortion of the animal. The more striking distinctions which constitute the genera are, on the whole, sufficiently clear; but those of the species are less obvious. We may indeed remark, that, with the exception of plants, species are not easily ascertained; and even in the more perfect animals, where the production of the offspring can be observed, we are not without difficulties. In the present order, the di-

stinction is still more arduous; and, in the lower, the minuter arrangement is extremely obscure. Linnæus adopted the number of scaly plates on the abdomen and beneath the tail, as an infallible criterion.

‘ The colour is indeed often variable, but the pattern, or general distribution of markings in each species, appears to be more constant: the relative size of the head, the length of the body and tail, the size, smoothness, or roughness of the scales, as well as their shape in different parts of the animal, often afford pretty certain specific marks.

‘ The distinction of serpents into poisonous and innoxious can only be known by an accurate examination of their teeth; the fangs or poisoning teeth being always of a tubular structure, and calculated for the conveyance or injection of the poisonous fluid from a peculiar reservoir communicating with the fang on each side of the head: the fangs are always situated in the anterior and exterior part of the upper jaw, and are generally, but not always, of much larger size than the other teeth; they are also frequently accompanied by some smaller or subsidiary fangs, apparently destined to supply the principal ones when lost either by age or accident. The fangs are situated in a peculiar bone, so articulated with the rest of the jaw as to elevate or depress them at the pleasure of the animal: in a quiescent state they are recumbent, with their points directed inwards or backwards; but when the animal is inclined to use them as weapons of offence, their position is altered by the peculiar mechanism of the above-mentioned bone in which they are rooted, and they become almost perpendicular.’ P. 314.

Dr. Gray has given an excellent rule to determine the existence or non-existence of the poisonous organs in the Philosophical Transactions for 1788. Poisonous serpents have the head generally covered with small scales. Carinated scales on the head are equally a mark of the noxious race; but, to each, there are some exceptions. The poisonous serpents are also, in general, viviparous; the others, oviparous.

The generic character of the first groupe, *viz.* the crota-lus, is adopted from Linnæus; but the specific distinctions are generally taken from the colour and the bands. The *C. horridus* is the first species, and described at great length. The animal dissected by Dr. Tyson was, in our author's opinion, the *C. durissus*, the second species. The *C. dryinas* and *miliarius* follow. No new species occurs.

The next genus is the boa, a vast animal, one of which terrified the whole Roman army. It is diffused over the torrid zone, and is not the creature of a single country. It is the serpent which is said to swallow a buffalo, after having covered it with slime, which dissolves or softens the hardest parts, so as to accommodate them to the animal's mouth. It appears to be gradually digested, and the different parts only to be swallowed in turn. To the Linnæan species, charac-

terised from the colour and stripes, are added the boa regia, from Seba, resembling the boa canina and Phrygia, the Ibiboboca and boiguae of the Brasilians; a very elegant species—the B. Phrygia—the ‘serpens phyticus Orientalis gerende dictus’ of the same author; and the crotaline boa, removed from the genus crotalus, in consequence of its wanting the rattle. From Russel, we find the B. fasciata (bungarum pamah), the B. lineata (geedi paragoodoo), the B. horatta (horatta pam), particularly described; and from Seba, the Siamese boa, with the trivial name of hipnale. The boa palpebrosa is copied from Merrem, and the B. annulata from madame Merian.

The genus coluber is peculiarly extensive, and might perhaps conveniently admit of being broken into two or more genera. Of the common viper, our author speaks at some length; and seems to admit the opinion, that the animal receives its young into its mouth, when in danger—resembling, in this respect, the rattle-snake. The black viper—the C. Prester of Linnæus—is considered as a variety of the common. The American black viper, on the contrary, is described as a new species, with the trivial name of cacodæmon. The account of the Egyptian viper, as short, we shall transcribe.

‘ Egyptian Viper.

‘ Coluber Vipera. *C. subferrugineus, fusco maculatus, subtus albidus, cauda brevi mucronata.*

‘ Subferruginous Viper, spotted with brown, beneath whitish, with short mucronated tail.

‘ Coluber Vipera. *Lin. Syst. Nat. p. 275. Hasselq. itin. p. 340.*

‘ Abdominal scuta 118, subcaudal scales 22.

‘ This, which is said to be the officinal viper of the Egyptians, seems to have been first accurately described by Hasselquist, who informs us that it is imported in considerable quantities every year to Venice for the use of the apothecaries in the composition of the theriaca, &c. Its size is somewhat smaller than that of the common viper: the head not so flat on the top, but very protuberant on each side: the snout very obtuse: the body thick towards the middle, and somewhat quadrangular, but thin and cylindric towards the head and tail, which latter is short, slender, conical, and terminated by a slightly incurved horny point or tip: the scales on all the upper parts of the animal are oval and carinated: the colour above is pale-ferruginous with darker spots, and beneath entirely whitish: the usual length of this species, according to Hasselquist, is about two spans and an inch, of which the tail measures only an inch. This is by some supposed to be the asp of Cleopatra, by the bite of which that high-spirited princess determined to die, rather than submit to be carried to Rome in order to grace the triumph of Augustus. It seems, however, utterly impossible to determine this point. Mr. Bruce, as the reader will find

in the description of the *cerastes*, rather supposes that serpent to have been the species employed. Mr. Schneider, in his work, entitled "*Historia Amphibiorum*," considers the Egyptian viper above described to be the true *dipsas* of the ancients which was popularly reported to kill by thirst.' p. 377.

The viper described by Charas, in his *New Experiments*, is supposed to be a distinct species, from its wanting the dorsal band, the distinguishing characteristic of the common viper, with which it has been confounded, as well as from the erect sub-acuminated lip of the snout. The history of the coluber *cerastes* is greatly enlarged from Bruce, who supposes it, as already observed, to be the aspic which Cleopatra chose as the instrument of her suicide. The horn-nose snake, a species unknown to systematic authors, was first noticed in that admirable work, *The Naturalist's Miscellany*; and the plate, with the description, are copied thence. We shall select a part.

' The snake here represented adds to the number of those malignant reptiles whose bite, in the hotter regions of the globe, proves the dreadful forerunner of a speedy and painful death. If at the first glance of most of the serpent tribe an involuntary sort of horror and alarm is so often felt by those who are unaccustomed to the examination of these animals, how much greater dread must the unexpected view of the species here exhibited be supposed to inflict? when to the general form of the creature is superadded the peculiar fierceness and forbidding torvity with which nature has marked its countenance; distinguished by the very uncommon appearance of two large and sharp-pointed horns, situated, not as in the *cerastes*, above the eyes, but on the top of the nose or anterior part of the upper jaw. These horns stand nearly upright, but incline slightly backwards and a little outwards on each side, and are of a substance not absolutely horny, but in some degree flexible: their shape is somewhat triangular or three-sided: they are about half an inch in length, and at the fore part of the base of each stands an upright strong scale, of nearly the same shape with the horn itself, and thus giving the appearance of a much smaller pair of horns. The mouth is furnished with extremely large and long fangs or tubular teeth, situated as in other poisonous serpents, and capable of inflicting the most severe wounds: two of these fangs appear on each side of the mouth; the hinder pair being smaller than the others. The length of this animal is about thirty-five inches. Its colour is a yellowish olive-brown, very thickly sprinkled all over with minute blackish specks: along the whole length of the back is placed a series of yellowish-brown oblong spots or marks, each of which is imbedded in a patch of black; and on each side of the body, from head to tail, runs an acutely-flexuous or zigzag line or narrow band of an ochre-colour: this band is bounded beneath by a much deeper or blacker shade, than on the rest of the body: the belly is of a dull ochre-colour or cinereous yellow, freckled with blackish spots and markings; and besides these a number of black spots of different

sizes are here and there dispersed over the whole animal. The tail is somewhat thin and short in proportion to the body. The scales of this species are harsh and stiff, and are very strongly carinated. The head is covered with small scales, and is marked on its upper part by a very large longitudinal patch of brown, running out into pointed processes at the sides, and bounded by a space of dull lead-colour or cinereous. The shape of the head is broad and flattened: the cheeks are varied with blackish and yellow marks.' p. 397.

The coluber *Clotho* ('*vipera bitin Ceilonica*') is taken from Seba: and the *C. Lachesis* ('*serpens Ceilonica bitin dicta*') from the same author. A variety of the *C. Lachesis*, from Seba, is added. The *C. Alecto*, a native of Ceylon—the '*ammodytes*' of that island—is also noticed from Seba; the *C. Tisiphone* from Catesby; and the *C. Megæra* is the yellow Martinico snake ('*la vipère fer-de-lance*') from La Cépède: the last is a most formidable animal, though improperly designated as a yellow serpent. The *C. naja* is the celebrated cobra de capello, called, by our author, the spectacle snake, from the figure of a pair of spectacles on the back of its neck; and a very particular account of the violent effects of its poison is added from Dr. Russell's very valuable work.

A new species, described by Dr. Russell, is properly distinguished by his name. It is the *katuka rekula poda* of the Hindûs. Its poison is peculiarly virulent. Another new species, from Dr. Russell, is the *C. gramineus* (*boodroo pam*). The bull-headed snake, *C. Bucephalus*, is described from Seba. New Holland has furnished the crimson-sided snake, the *C. porphyriacus*, which is now found to be poisonous, though formerly supposed innoxious, in consequence of the mutilation of the specimen. The *hæmachæte* snake is from Seba, noticed by La Cépède, who informs us that it is poisonous. Catesby has furnished the account of the *C. aquaticus*, resembling the rattle-snake, and equally dangerous; Seba that of the *C. breviceps*, which he calls '*serpens porphyrius Brasiliensis*'; of the coluber *elegantissimus*, the superb snake, which he styles '*serpens lemniscata venustissima Americana*'; of some of the supposed varieties of the common viper, particularly the hyæna of the Greeks, the *boiquatrara* of the Indians, the *malpalan* of the Cevlonese, and the *serenus* of the Brasilians.

The Argus snake is admitted into the System of Nature by Linnæus, though he was unacquainted with the number of its *scuta* or *squamæ*. This is a Brazilian serpent, though the same appellation be given to a very rare species from Guinea, called by our author the *C. ocellatus*. The Chiametla snake is a new species from Seba; and the Java snake was

first described by M. Wurmb, in the Memoirs of the Batavian Society. The Daboya, the Brazilian, the triangular-headed, and the panther snakes are taken from La Cépède; the leopard snake from Seba; and an undescribed species, the *C. maculatus*, from a specimen in the British Museum.

The *C. atrovirens* is now separated from the *C. natrix*, with which it has been usually confounded: it is the *anguis Æsculapii niger* of Aldrovandus: the *C. elaphis* is the *elaphis* of the same author; and the *C. Æsculapii his anguis Æsculapii vulgaris*. Many probable varieties of the *C. pullatus* are annexed from Seba; and the *C. macrolepidotus*, described from a specimen in Dr. Hunter's museum, also greatly resembles the *pullatus*. We have, as usual, avoided particularly noticing the species described by Linnæus, not to extend our article too far.

The *C. acontia* (cupreous snake), *C. Surinamensis* (cine-reous snake), the *C. textilis* (*ammodytes Americana flammifera*) *C. meleagris*, the *C. viperinus*, *C. platurinus* (*millio dict.*), *C. graphicus*, *C. ornatus*, are described from Seba; the coluber Carolinianus (the corn snake), and *C. flagellum*, are from Catesby.

New Spain furnishes the pearl-coloured snake, called the *iztag*, Bœotia the marbled snake, Africa the *C. ammobates*, Ceylon the *C. crucifer*, and Peru the black and white snake, with a rose-coloured abdomen (*C. Peruvianus*). These species have not yet been noticed in any modern system. The Hygeian snake is a native of Siam, described by Seba, and noticed by Merrem; and the chequered snake is the *petlacoatl* of the Mexicans, figured by the former author.

The red-throated snake (*C. jugularis*) was described by Hasselquist; and the Cape snake, as well as the cobra Americana, by Seba. The Australasian snake is a new species, first noticed by Mr. White. The *C. cursor* (the swift snake) from La Cépède; the *hickanella* of the Americans from La Cépède; the *C. boæformis* (*pedda poda* and *bora*) from Russell.

The coluber Austriacus was first remarked by Laurenti, whose account was copied by La Cépède, and who called it *La Lisse*. The catenated snake is a new species, described from an animal preserved in the British Museum. The *beataen* and the *hoelleik* snakes are taken from Forskal: the coluber *jara*, *arnensis*, *sagittatus*, *striatus*, and *fasciolatus*, from Russell. The *C. melanotus* (the black-sided snake), and the *C. elegans*, are copied from Seba: the latter is the *S. catenata* of New Spain. The *C. tæniatus*, *octolineatus*,

and decorus, are copied from specimens in the British Museum. *M. la Cépède* has furnished the *C. bilineatus*, the *C. gemmatus*, and the *C. trilineatus*; and Seba the *C. intestinalis*. The *C. trifasciatus* is described from a specimen in Dr. Hunter's museum.

The serpens *Ægyptiaca bochir dicta*, and the Brazilian serpent, *iberacoa*—probably varieties of some of the Linnæan lineated species—are noticed from Seba's work. The *C. mycterizans* is taken from Catesby; and some varieties are brought from Russell's valuable volume: the green serpent from Java, and the serpens *canora purpurea Cæcuba* of Seba, are probably varieties also of this species. The *C. æstivus* is from Catesby, the *C. melanurus* from Russell, and the *C. torquatus* from Edwards.

We have engaged in this long, and (we fear) tedious, account of the author's numerous additions to the species of coluber, to point out the extent of our obligations to him. We could have wished that they had been divided into families; and, had we room, could point out some general distinctions for this purpose. Dr. Shaw's definitions, as we have said, are taken from the marks; the trivial names of Linnæus are carefully preserved, and the new ones characteristically appropriated. On the whole, the very ample and extensive information conveyed in the account of this genus would alone have established Dr. Shaw's credit as a naturalist, had every other testimony been wanting.

The hydrus is a new genus, chiefly selected from the angues. It was first established by Schneider, who has admitted two species which more properly belong to the *acrochordus*, and are restored to that genus by Dr. Shaw. They include all the water-snakes; and the first species, the hydrus *colubrinus*, is the coluber *laticaudatus* of Linnæus: the second—the hydrus *Caspius* of Schneider—is also a coluber in the Linnæan system, with the trivial name of hydrus, though approaching more nearly an anguis. The *H. major*, *gracilis*, *cærulescens*, *spiralis*, and *curtus*, are from specimens in the British Museum. The *H. fasciatus* of Schneider (the *tattapam* of India) is described by Dr. Russell. The hydrus *bicolor* is the anguis *platura* of Linnæus, represented in Seba's work as a rare Mexican serpent, and by Russell under the name *nalla wahlagille pam*. The *H. atrocæruleus* (*H. enydaïs* of Schneider; the *H. cinereus* (*H. rynchops* of Schneider); the *H. piscator* and *palustris*, both of Shaw and Schneider, are also described by Dr. Russell.

The new genus, of which there is only a single species, we shall describe in our author's own words.

‘ Langaya. Langaya.

‘ Generic character.

‘ Scuta abdominalia.	Abdominal plates.
Annuli caudales.	Caudal rings.
Squamæ terminales.	Terminal scales.

‘ Snouted Langaya.

‘ Langaya Nasuta. *L. maxilla superiore rostrata.*

‘ Langaya with the upper jaw produced in form of a snout.

‘ Langaha. *Bruguiere. Journ. de Physique, 1784. Cépède Ovip. 2. p. 469.*

‘ Abdominal scales 184, caudal rings 42.

‘ The genus langaya, consisting of a single species only, differs from all the rest of the serpent tribe in having the upper part or beginning of the tail marked into complete rings or circular divisions resembling those on the body of the amphisbæna, while the extreme or terminal part is covered with small scales, as in the genus anguis.

‘ The langaya nasuta, or long-snouted langaya, is a native of Madagascar, and appears to have been first described by Mons. Bruguiere of the Royal Society of Montpellier, whose account of it is inserted in the *Journal de Physique* for the year 1784. The length of the individual described was about two feet eight inches, and its greatest diameter about seven lines: the head is covered with large scales, but the snout, which is extremely long and sharp, projecting to a considerable distance beyond the lower jaw, is covered with very small scales: the teeth, in shape and disposition, resemble those of a viper: the scales on the upper parts of the body are rhomboidal, of a reddish colour, and each marked at the base by a small grey circle, with a yellow spot in the middle: the under parts are pale or whitish: the number of abdominal scuta, as well as of circles on the tail, is observed to vary in this snake, as is also the colour, which in one individual was violet, with darker coloured specks on the back. The natives of Madagascar are said to hold the langaya in great dread, considering it as a highly poisonous serpent.’ P. 571.

The genus *acrochordus* was first established by the discovery of a peculiar snake in the island of Java, described in the *Swedish Transactions* by Mr. Hornsted; and the *acrochordus dubius*, from a specimen in the British Museum, does not very essentially differ from it. The *A. fasciatus* is pretty certainly the *hydrus granulatus* of Schneider. The specimen is from the British Museum.

The *anguis* is a genus well known, and it has not received many additions. The *A. leucomelas*—the Brazilian tetzauh-coatl—and two kinds of the *amphisbæna* of Amboyna, are reduced to this genus from Seba. The *A. nasuta* is a species unknown to systematics, from the Berlin Memoirs: and the *A. Jamaicensis* of Dr. Shaw seems to be the *A. lumbricalis* of

Linnaeus. Two others, imperfectly described by Russell and Seba, are annexed to this genus, but have no specific characters.

The *amphisbæna* connects, in some degree, the *angues* and *lacertæ*. Two species only are known, and these occur in the Linnæan system. The genus *cæcilia* admits also of no additions. Our author's concluding observations anticipate, in some measure, our remarks; and we shall prefer his own more concise and scientific language.

‘ I cannot conclude the enumeration of the serpent tribe without observing, that this branch of natural history still requires much elucidation, and is, perhaps, of all others, the most liable to errors and uncertainties. The Linnæan characters of these animals, in the *Systema Naturæ*, are, from their extreme brevity, but ill calculated for general information, nor can it be surprising that they should now be considered as constituting little more than a mere series of memorandums relative to abdominal and subcaudal scales; while many of the most remarkable serpents in the works of Scheuchzer and Seba, seem to have been entirely neglected, apparently for no other reason than that the number of these parts could not be ascertained: as if the external form and colours of the animals were of no importance in the specific character. On this subject the observations of Mr. Schneider appear to be perfectly just.

“ *Ingenia curiosorum primus acuit Linnæus ad investigandas corporum naturalium atque animalium notas; verum postquam accedente philosophia et zootomia pomœria scientiæ naturalis multo latius promota fuerunt, raro curiosorum lectorum desiderio satisfaciunt breves amphibiorum notationes singulis speciebus in systemate Linnæano appositæ.*”

‘ Mr. Schneider goes on to observe, that, unless a more ample mode of description be adopted, there is reason to apprehend that the authority of the Linnæan characters of the amphibia, and of serpents in particular, will become entirely obsolete.’ p. 598.

In the appendix the dubious amphibia are described. These are the sirens, of which our author communicates all that is hitherto known. The first siren, and that lately described by Schreibers, in the *Philosophical Transactions*, have been already noticed at sufficient length in this journal. The siren *pisciformis*, of the *Naturalist's Miscellany*, is added; and to this Dr. Shaw thinks the animal described by M. Beauvois, in the late volume of the *American Transactions*, to be nearly allied. Another from Lake Champlain seems not very different. On the disputed point, whether it be a perfect animal or a larva, Dr. Shaw does not decide: he seems to lean to the former opinion.

ART. VI.—*An Essay on War, in Blank Verse; Honington Green, a Ballad; the Culprit, an Elegy; and other Poems, on various Subjects: by Nathaniel Bloomfield.* 12mo. 4s. Boards. Hurst. 1803.

A VOLUME of poems by the brother of Robert Bloomfield, author of the *Farmer's Boy*, will not be opened, without some apprehension that no affinity of genius may exist, notwithstanding their consanguinity. Yet the perfections, as well as the imperfections, of the mind have sometimes been hereditary; and the moral, as well as the physical, features discover a family likeness.

This volume, also, is introduced by a preface from Mr. Capel Loft.

'Whoever' (he says) 'has read the preface to the *Farmer's Boy* will hardly fail of recollecting the name of Nathaniel Bloomfield; the author of the poems here offered to the public.

'It will be recollected that he there appears, with his brother George Bloomfield, standing in the place of the father, whom they had early lost, to their younger brother Robert.

'It is natural to suppose that this brotherly interference, and its consequences, greatly and advantageously influenc'd the dispositions, pursuits, and habits of thought and conduct, of all three of the brothers.—And it is the more exemplary when it is consider'd how young the two eldest were at that time.

'It is an encouraging instance how much may be effected for each other by the poor and uneducated, if they have prudence, activity, and kind affections; and how unexpectedly, and to an extent far beyond apparent probability, success is given by Providence to virtuous and benevolent efforts.

'Beyond question, the brothers of this family are all extraordinary men; and perhaps every one of them is more so than he would have been without the fraternal concord which has animated them all, and multiplied the powers of all by union and sympathy.' P.V.

The history of the author's life is short: he was apprenticed to a taylor in the country; and, when his time expired, came to London, where his brother George resided. It was some years before he could procure work enough here to support him through the *dead* months: on which account, when trade was dull in town, he used to go into the country.

'And thus, while at Woolwich, he became acquainted with Charlotte Noble, whom he married 4th March, 1787; he being then in his 28th, and she in her 17th year. Her mother was a widow: who kept a small general shop. Her brother-in-law George, in speaking of this union, says, "There perhaps never liv'd a woman who possess'd a better temper: and he has, though very poor, been exceedingly happy." For myself, I wish, in transcribing this account, that those who think riches so essential to happiness that they will take no

step in life, nor suffer their hearts or their understandings to have any influence with them, if the acquisition of riches seems likely to be delayed or endanger'd, would consider that the family of the Bloomfields has been happy, and has excell'd, upon very different principles. And if we would compare the thousands in every situation of life to whom what is called *prosperity* is a snare, a burthen and a curse, with those who are happy with mere necessities, and those with difficulty obtain'd;—happy by their affections and their virtues; by improv'd and generous and tender feelings; by hope amid difficulties, and confidence in heaven amid trials and distresses,—it might be seen and felt that there is more of folly in the wisdom of the world, than those who place wisdom in the accumulation of superfluities, to the neglect of the most natural blessings, and often in violation of the clearest duties, either of justice or of benevolence, may be willing to acknowledge.'
P. ix.

One of the most interesting poems in this volume is founded upon such reflexions as these: its title is 'Love's Triumph.'

' Doth poverty create the fears
That o'er your love their shadows fling!—
The silence of those falling tears
Confesses all the truth I sing.

' O! Mary, let not empty shew,
Let not the pride of gaudy dress,
Thus cloud thy morn of life with woe,
And blight it's future happiness.

' Trust the monition Baldwin gave,
Our future bliss it's truth shall prove,
Life's cares the lovers who dare brave,
Shall find their rich reward in love:

' Baldwin, the hoary-headed bard,
I still consult when cares annoy:
He own'd for me a fond regard;
And calls me still his darling boy.

' His mind is fraught with spoils of time;
He's wise and good, though known to few:
He gave me this advice in rhyme,
And here I'll read the song to you:—

" Though envious Age affects to deem thee boy,
Lose not one day, one hour, of proffer'd bliss;
In youth grasp every unoffending joy,
And wing'd with rapture snatch the bridal kiss.

" Let not this chief of blessings be deferr'd,
Till you your humble fortunes can improve;
None's poor but he, by sordid fears deterr'd,
Who dares not claim the matchless wealth of Love.

" Virtue can make most rich thy little store ;
 Virtue can make most bright thy lowly state :
 Murmur not then that virtuous thou art poor,
 While prosperous vice can make men rich and great.

" The bad man may, his every sense to please,
 Each soft indulging luxury employ :
 The plenitude of elegance and ease
 He may possess ; but never can enjoy.

" No—though his goods, and flocks, and herds abound ;
 His wide demesne to fair profusion grown ;
 Though proud his lofty mansion looks around,
 On hills, and fields, and forests, all his own :

" Tho' this may tempt thee, murmuring to complain,
 With conscience clear, and life void of offence,
 ' Verily, then, I've cleans'd my heart in vain ;
 In vain have washed my hands in innocence.'

" Yet could'st thou closely mark the envied man,
 See how desires ungovern'd mar his peace ;
 Or had'st thou power his inward mind to scan,
 How soon in pity would thy envy cease !

" The active life of labour gives no room
 To that dull spleen the indolent endure ;
 Generous cares dispel our mental gloom,
 And Industry is Melancholy's cure.

" Repine not then, that low thy lot is cast ;
 Health gives to life or high or low it's zest ;
 'Tis appetite that seasons our repast,
 And weariness still finds the softest rest.

" For all thy blessings thankfulness to wake,
 Think of less cultur'd lands, less peaceful times ;
 Our coarsest fare, when sparingly we take,
 'Tis luxury, compar'd with other climes.

" Think of the poor Greenlanders' dismal caves,
 Where thro' their long, long night they buried lie ;
 Or the more wretched lands where hapless slaves
 Hopelessly toil beneath the fervid sky.

" In Britain—blest with peace and competence,
 Rich Fortune's favours would impart no more :—
 Heaven's blessings equal happiness dispense ;
 Believe my words, for I am old and poor.

" Many who drudge in Labour's roughest ways,
 By whom life's simplest, lowliest walks are trod,
 Happily live, to honor'd length of days,
 Blessing kind nature, and kind nature's God."

' What think you, is sage Baldwin right?
Should spring-tide love endure delay?
And shall our bliss be seal'd ere night?
Say, lovely Mary, softly say?

' Why starts my love?—why rise to go?
Will Mary then my suit deny?
Sweet is the smile that answers, No!
By Heaven, there's rapture in her eye!' P. 74.

When a boy, Nathaniel Bloomfield was fond of church music—one of the great consolations, as Mr. Lofft calls it, of energetic and pensive minds. Tillotson's Sermons seem to have been the first work which interested and materially impressed him; the Night Thoughts, of which he made a chance purchase at a stall, first awakened his love of poetry: his memory was very retentive; and he used to repeat great part of these poems in his walks with his brothers. The success of his brother Robert encouraged him to attempt a longer poem than any he had before composed. This is of a very different character and tendency from the one whence we have just quoted: it is an Essay on War; and its principle is explained in these lines, which are, perhaps, a specimen of its best powers.

' Advanc'd Society's prudential laws,
The moral virtues of the enlighten'd mind,
And all the ties of Interest and of Love,
In vain conspire to nurse their favourite Peace,
And banish dire Immanity and War.
Strong Nature's bent, continual increase,
Still counteracts Humanity's fond wish,
The perpetuity of Peace, and Love;
Alas! progressive increase cannot last.
Soon mourns the encumber'd land it's human load:
Too soon arrives the inauspicious hour;
The natal hour of the unhappy man,
Who all his life goes mourning up and down
That there is neither bough, nor mud, nor straw
That he may take to make himself a hut;
No, not in all his native land a twig
That he may take, nor spot of green grass turf,
Where without trespass he may set his foot.
Now Want and Poverty wage war with Love;
And hard the conflict: horrible the thought,
That Love, who boasts of his all-conquering impulse,
Should have to mourn abortive energies—
But in proportion as mankind increase,
So evils multiply: till Nature's self,
(The native passions of the human mind)
Engender war; which thins, and segregates,
And rectifies the balance of the world;

As thick-sown plants in the vegetable world,
 With stretching branches wage continual war ;
 Each tender bud shrinks from the foreign touch
 With a degree of sensitive perception ;
 Till one deforms, o'er-tops, and kills the other.' P. 4.

Mr. Lofft has expressed his doubts of the truth of this principle. As a Christian, he should more decidedly have controverted an opinion so mischievous and so absurd: it is the corner-stone of atheism, and of atheistic morals; for it denies the existence of an over-ruling Intelligence; and asserts, that man must, like the beasts, blindly indulge his sexual appetite, however deplorable and ruinous the consequences. Such an assertion may be credited by the inhabitants and by the visitants of the brothel: but they must be lamentably ignorant of history and of metaphysics, who are the dupes of such a system. Mr. N. Bloomfield has hastily assented to a doctrine which he has but half examined. If the evils of society be amended, say these arithmetical moralists—if the condition of the poor be bettered—the world will one day be overstocked: want, therefore, and disease, and war, are not evils, but preventatives. What should we say to the quack who should wish to inoculate us with the king's-evil, lest our children should be so healthy as to be in danger of apoplexy?

The poems, in general, are not without merit: this last, however, is inferior to every other piece in the volume. The versification is, nevertheless, smooth, and, when the circumstances of the author are considered, surprisingly free from faults: but it is sometimes languid: and the subject itself is so offensive to the feelings and wishes of those to whom poetry is chiefly addressed, that we believe it will give little pleasure. The Elegy on the Enclosure of Honington Green is, in every respect, superior.

'Here' (says Mr. Lofft) 'it may be right to obviate some prejudice against the poem, which, in the minds of several, may arise from the subject. I am not an enemy to enclosures: if the rights and interests of the poor, and of small owners, be very carefully guarded, an enclosure may be a common benefit. However, it is very liable to become otherwise. But be an enclosure good or bad, (and every man has a right to his opinion, and to support it by argument, on this subject and every other) there are particular circumstances and considerations which stand clear of the scope of the general question. The spot which is the subject of the ballad is less, I believe, than half an acre. It did certainly ornament the village; independent of a just and laudable partiality in the author. Thus it would have seem'd to the casual glance of a stranger. To the Bloomfields every circumstance gave it peculiar endearment. There the author of 'The Farmer's Boy,' and of these poems, first drew breath. There grew the first daisies which

their feet press'd in childhood. On this little green their parents look'd with delight : and the children caught the affection ; and learn'd to love it as soon as they lov'd any thing. By it's smallness and it's situation it was no object : and could have been left out of enclosure without detriment to the general plan, or to any individual interest. I wish it had : and most who love poetry, and respect genius, and are anxious to preserve the little innocent gratifications of the poor, will have the same wish.

' As a poetical effusion, it strikes me that it has the tone, simplicity, and sweetness, and pleasing melancholy of the ballad. There is a stroke or two of indignant severity : but the general character is such as I have describ'd. And with filial gratitude and love there is blended, in the close, that turn for reflection which is so remarkable in this author . . . I wish'd and recommended that some at least of the ornaments of ' The Farmer's Boy ' should be sketches of local scenery : knowing how much more interesting they would have been, and how much more appropriate to the poem. In that recommendation I was not successful : but I am glad, in this instance, to see a faithful and agreeable sketch of Honington-Green from a very young pencil. It will be remember'd, at a far remote period, that the double cottage at the end of the green was the birth-place of the Bloomfields. It is still, (and may it yet be long so) the habitation of their mother : and has been repair'd lately by Robert. And I much doubt whether any house or green will see two such poets born of the same parents.' P. xviii.

We extract the stanzas in which the poet speaks of his father and of his own childhood.

' I faintly remember the man,
Who died when I was but a child ;
But far as my young mind could scan,
His manners were gentle and mild :
He won infant ears with his lore,
Nor let young ideas run wild,
Tho' his hand the severe rod of pow'r
Never sway'd o'er a trembling child.

' Not anxiously careful for pelf,
Melancholic and thoughtful, his mind
Look'd inward, and dwelt on itself,
Still pensive, pathetic, and kind ;
Yet oft in despondency drown'd,
He from friends, and from converse would fly,
In weeping a luxury found,
And reliev'd others' woes with a sigh.

' In solitude long would he stay,
And long lock'd in silence his tongue ;
Then he humm'd an elegiac lay,
Or a psalm penitential he sung ;
But if with his friends he regal'd,
His mirth, as his griefs, knew no bounds ;
In no tale of Mark Sargent he fail'd,
Nor in all Robin Hood's Derry-downs.

- ' Through the poor widow's long lonely years,
 Her father supported us all;
 Yet sure she was loaded with cares,
 Being left with six children so small.
 Meagre want never lifted her latch;
 Her cottage was still tight and clean;
 And the casement beneath it's low thatch,
 Commanded a view o'er the Green.
- ' O'er the Green, where so often she blest
 The return of a husband or son,
 Coming happily home to their rest,
 At night, when their labour was done:
 Where so oft in her earlier years,
 She, with transport maternal, has seen
 (While plying her housewifely cares)
 Her children all safe on the Green.
- ' The Green was our pride through the year,
 For in spring, when the wild flow'rets blew,
 Tho' many rich pastures were near,
 Where cowslips and daffodils grew;
 And tho' such gallant flow'rs were our choice,
 It was bliss interrupted by fear—
 The fear of their owner's dread voice,
 Harshly bawling "You've no business here."
- ' While the Green, tho' but daisies it's boast,
 Was free as the flow'rs to the bee;
 In all seasons the Green we lov'd most,
 Because on the Green we were free;
 'Twas the prospect that first met my eyes,
 And memory still blesses the scene;
 For early my heart learnt to prize
 The freedom of Honington Green.' P. 33.

The conclusion of this poem has uncommon merit.

- ' Tho' the youth of to-day must deplore
 The rough mounds that now sadden the scene,
 The vain stretch of Misanthropy's power,
 The enclosure of Honington Green.
 Yet when not a green turf is left free,
 When not one odd nook is left wild,
 Will the children of Honington be
 Less blest than when I was a child?
- ' No!—childhood shall find the scene fair,
 Then here let me cease my complaint;
 Still shall health be inhal'd with the air,
 Which at Honington cannot be taint;
 And tho' Age may still talk of the Green,
 Of the heath, and free commons of yore,
 Youth shall joy in the new-fangled scene,
 And boast of *that* change we deplore.

‘ Dear to me was the wild thorny hill,
And dear the brown heath’s sober scene ;
And Youth shall find happiness still,
Tho’ he roves not on common or green :
Tho’ the pressure of Wealth’s lordly hand
Shall give Emulation no scope,
And tho’ all th’ appropriate land
Shall leave Indigence nothing to hope.

‘ So happily flexile man’s make,
So pliantly docile his mind,
Surrounding impressions we take,
And bliss in each circumstance find.
The youths of a more polish’d age
Shall not wish these rude commons to see ;
To the bird that’s inur’d to the cage,
It would not be bliss to be free.’ P. 38.

There is an inaccuracy in using *taint* for *tainted*; and sometimes, unless the pronunciation be forced, the metre is defective. Such faults occur seldom: the writer more frequently expresses himself with a fortunate ease, which surprises as well as pleases.

The ‘Culprit’ is what Mr. Lofft, adopting Mr. Dyer’s language, calls a *representative* poem: it is a soliloquy in character—the feelings of a prisoner during his trial. The execution of this is far better than the design. Of the smaller poems, the last is the most striking—‘An Address to Dr. Jenner.’ Our readers will not peruse it without emotion, when they learn that the author had just lost a third child by the small-pox.

—‘ Shall parental love neglect
To minister the precious balm?
‘ Oh! no; beware of dire delay,
Ye, who caress your infants dear;
Defer it not from day to day,
From month to month, from year to year ;

‘ Lest you, like me, too late lament,
Your life bereft of all it’s joy;
Clasp now the gift so kindly sent,
Lest you behold your dying boy!

‘ Lest you see with trembling fear,
With inexpressible distress;
The purple spots of death appear,
To blast your hopes and happiness :

‘ Lest your keenest grief to wake,
Like mine your suffering prattler say,

“ Go, bid my father come and take
These frightful spots and sores away.”

- ‘ Quickly from such fears be free :
 Oh ! there is danger in delay !
 Say not to-morrow it shall be :—
 To-morrow ! no ; to-day, to-day.
- ‘ Embrace the blessing Heaven hath sent ;
 So shall you ne’er such pangs endure :
 Oh ! give a trifle to prevent,
 What you would give a world to cure.’ P. 94.

The specimens which we have selected will justify us in bestowing our praise upon this little volume ; and sincerely do we wish that public praise may be as efficient in his instance, as it was in that of his brother. We hope Mr. N. Bloomfield will continue to write ; but we would dissuade him from writing in blank verse : it requires a command of language, and a strength of thought, which he has not yet attained.

We cannot better conclude this article, than in the words of the benevolent editor.

‘ Mr. Nathaniel Bloomfield was not without his fears, however, lest it should be thought, that, although the Muse can visit a shepherd’s boy, there may be some employments which exclude her influence. That a taylor should be a poet, he doubted, might appear too startling an assertion. And he had said accordingly to his brother George, in a letter, when this publication was first going to press, “I want you to exclude the word *taylor*. Let there be no such word in the book. But perhaps I am too late. I know there is in the public mind as great contempt for him who bears the appellation of *taylor*, as Sterne has made old Shandy have for Simkin, Neckey, or Tristram. How many Cæsars and Pompeys, says he, by mere inspiration of the names, have been rendered worthy of them? And how many are there who might have done exceedingly well in the world, had not their characters and spirits been totally depressed and Nicodemiz’d ; and I will add (says Mr. N. Bloomfield) *taylor’d* into nothing? In the Rehearsal, the author, to make the most ridiculous part of it still more ridiculous, tells us, that it was written to a *taylor*, and by a *taylor’s wife*. And even the discerning Spectator has given into this common-place railery in the Monkey’s Letter to her Mistress. He has made the soul which inhabited pug’s body, in recounting the humiliating state it had formerly been in, say that he had been a *taylor*, a shrimp, and a tomtit. It is from these causes, as well as from the habits and appearance contracted by a recluse and sedentary life, that, in the enlighten’d, as well as the ignorant, the ideas of *taylor* and *insignificance* are inseparably link’d together.”

‘ I prevail’d, notwithstanding, that this word, whose anti-poetic influence is so dreaded, should be in the book. About half a century ago, there seem’d a degree of incredulity as to the possibility of courage in a taylor. Elliot’s light horse, at that time compos’d of taylor-volunteers, effectually overcame that prejudice. It remain’d to dissolve another still more irrational prepossession, that a taylor cannot be a

poet. And this volume will be a victorious host against an army of such prejudices. Indeed the force is greater than such a combat requires: for stubborn as other prejudices may still be, our literary prejudices have, in this age, been rapidly giving way to candour, reason, common-sense, and the evidence of fact. We have long known that a Scotch plough-boy (Burns) and a milk-woman (Mrs. Yearsley) could still be poets of high and almost singular excellence. And if improbability were any thing against fact, it would be far more improbable, that two brothers should be such poets as Robert and Nathaniel Bloomfield are, than that a taylor should be a poet. It remains then for prejudice to vanish like mists before the sun; while the two brothers sociably ascend Parnassus together, higher than ever brothers have climbed before: I might add, each of them to an height which but few have ever reach'd.

ART. VII. — *Female Biography; or, Memoirs of illustrious and celebrated Women, of all Ages and Countries. Alphabetically arranged. By Mary Hays. 6 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. 1803.*

MANY are the disputes which have been agitated concerning the comparative superiority or inferiority of the two sexes; in the course of which, the disputants have generally appeared to us too warm and too eager in their partialities; to admit a suitable compromise, or appeal, from theory and romance, to experience and the evidence of facts. In the present state of the controversy, it is probable that the work before us has been compiled to counteract the contempt in which some yet hold the female mind; and in this intention it cannot fail to produce a powerful diversion in favour of the latter. Here, indeed, are ample materials, by which contending opinions may be repelled or confirmed. Those who exalt the capacity of the fair sex must expect to be asked for proofs; and what more striking than a body of evidence, which comprehends the characters and actions of the most illustrious women of all nations? For producing such a testimony, Miss Hays will probably receive the thanks of her sex; and, although we shall have occasion to produce some objections of considerable weight, we cannot, upon the whole, deny her the praise of much laudable zeal and industry. If she disappoint any expectations, she may console herself by the reflexion, that expectations on such a subject will be guided by prejudices and opinions, of which she could have no knowledge, and against which she could make no preparation.

These volumes contain the lives of above two hundred and eighty females, who have been celebrated for virtue,

wisdom, or fortitude, by authors of various nations, and writing from various motives. The authorities are chiefly Ballard, Bayle, and Gibbons; the *Dictionnaire Historique*, *Biographium Fæmineum*, and some individual historians. The whole is compiled in a neat and uniform style, and, with some few exceptions, 'every character has been judged upon its own principles; the reflexions, sparingly interwoven, have been such as naturally arose out of the subject; nor has the author ever gone out of her way in favour of sects and systems.'

In her preface, Miss Hays has endeavoured to obviate the objection, that 'but little new is brought forward in this work.' But this was surely unnecessary. Much novelty could not be expected in a compilation which boasts no other resources than are in every common library. For all the purposes of her compilation, it appeared sufficient to take the accounts reputed most authentic, to change the style for the sake of uniformity, and abridge the histories where they appeared too prolix. Of what, therefore, she found in books, she seems to have made a judicious use; and it was assuredly unnecessary for her to repeat the researches of a Ballard or a Walpole, who had already collected the only materials which research could have procured.

We shall, however, now advert to a plea, in which, we are of opinion, she has not been so successful. It occurs in preface, p. vi.

'For the life of Catherine II. some apology, on account of its disproportionate length, is probably due. The interesting nature of the subjects it embraced, and the copiousness of the materials, insensibly led me beyond the purposed limits. The lives of our own Elizabeth, of whom Englishwomen may justly boast, and of the unfortunate Mary of Scotland, her rival and sister queen, are also of considerable length. But let it be remembered, that the reign of an absolute monarch is strictly biographical, and that the character of the sovereign is read in the history of his times. The life of madame de Maintenon, so full of amusing anecdote, secures me the indulgence of my readers. In that of madame Roland, the progress and delineation of a most extraordinary and admirable mind, placed in circumstances wholly unparalleled, abounds in so much instruction, and excites so lively an interest, that further to have abridged it would have been almost a crime.'

To this argument we cannot agree. Elizabeth and Catharine, although absolute monarchs in the common meaning of the word, had their counsellors and advisers; and many of their actions were performed in concert with other sovereigns. We know not, and never can know, to whom the real merit of many actions is to be attributed, which are nominally the actions of an absolute prince. But Miss Hays's

opinion has led her to give a biography of these monarchs, and of Mary queen of Scots, wholly disproportioned to the rest of the work. The life of Catharine extends to 428 pages, that of Elizabeth to 220 (did she deserve this *reduction* of allowance?), and that of Mary to 286. It must, we candidly think, immediately strike the reader, that these lives are thus extended, merely because extensive materials were at command, and scarcely required more than transcription; while, on the other hand, it is equally obvious, that they increase the bulk and price of the work, without contributing in the same proportion to its moral purposes. If the fair sex be to be taught by examples, it is useless to point their attention to those exalted stations, which, in the present state of society, can never be attained by merit. In Catharine II. as a *woman*, we see nothing but what is grossly repugnant to the delicacy of the sex; and, as a sovereign, we are perhaps too near the period of her reign to be able to separate the true from the false. While we dwell upon this subject, indeed, we may further object, that her being entered upon the muster-roll at all is not consistent with Miss Hays's plan, if the following words in the preface have any meaning:—she professes to have *admitted* but few 'who have come nearer to our own times, for reasons *unnecessary* to be detailed.' But why *unnecessary*? why are we to have no explanation of a rule arbitrarily laid down, and as arbitrarily broken? Catharine is not the only woman of recent date who is honoured with a place in these Memoirs:—we have madame Roland, and Mrs. Chapone, but not a word of Mrs. (Wollstonecraft) Godwin, who, according to the obvious intention of the author, ought to have been admitted as the champion of her sex, and the reviver of the sexual controversy.

With respect to madame Roland's life, we have the same objection as to that of Catharine: it occupies more than 200 pages, and is principally a transcript from her own Memoirs; and we are very doubtful whether the life of such a woman, in which the romantic spirit and egregious vanity of the original are preserved, can contribute much to the honour or edification of her sex. We have yet a more serious objection to the retention of an abominable word in this memoir, with which we are surprised that any lady should ever have contaminated her pages. Madame de Maintenon is also allowed a far greater proportion than the life of an artful courtesan, whatever her talents, deserves in a work intended to dignify the female character, and instruct the female mind. As to the life of Ninon de l'Enclos, we shall only say that we hope there are not many ladies who can read it without a blush, and some degree of indignation at being entrapped into

the biography of a prostitute, whose passions even the extremity of old age could never repress.

We are sorry that we have been led to offer so many objections to what constitutes a large proportion of this work; but we trust it will be found, upon reflexion, that our objections are serious and important. To minuter imperfections, we shall not descend*; but shall at once present our readers with a fair specimen of the general execution of the work, in an extract from the life of Mrs. Macaulay Graham, the materials of which are original, and, our readers will perceive, worked up *con amore*.

After a short account of her family, Miss Hays thus details the early studies and rising genius of Mrs. Graham.

'The younger' (sister), 'Catherine, found nothing to interest her attention in her sister's pursuits; active and curious, she thirsted for knowledge, and her dolls could give her no information. The books which were put into her hands entertained her for a time, while they interested her imagination, and gratified her taste for novelty: but at length she became satiated with fairy tales and romances, which afforded not aliment sufficiently substantial to satisfy the cravings of her enquiring mind. Having found her way into her father's well-furnished library, she became her own purveyor, and rioted in intellectual luxury. Every hour in the day, which no longer hung heavy upon her hands, was now occupied and improved. She first made choice of the periodical writers, the Spectators, Guardian, &c. who, in treating of morals and manners, led her to reflection, while they opened and strengthened her mind. As she advanced in age, her studies took a wider range; she grew attached to history, and dwelt with delight and ardour on the annals of the Greek and Roman republics. Their laws and manners interested her understanding, the spirit of patriotism seized her, and she became an enthusiast in the cause of freedom. The heroic characters and actions with which this period of history is intermingled and enlivened, seldom fail to captivate the affections of a youthful and uncorrupted heart. All other books were thrown aside; history became her darling passion, and liberty the idol of her imagination. Rollin's Ancient History, and his Account of the Roman Republic, first lighted up that spark in her mind, which afterwards blazed with so much fervour and splendour, and which gave the tone to her sentiments and character through the subsequent periods of her life. To a spirit thus excited, retirement, by concentrating its force, added strength: the world, with its lax principles and vicious habits, had not yet broken in upon the gay mistakes of the just expanding heart, enamoured of truth and virtue, and ignorant of the difficulties which retard and obstruct their progress.—

'Oh youth! the lovely source of generous errors!

* A singular instance occurs in the life of Mrs. Centlivre. It is said 'Eustace and Budgell were of the number of her acquaintance.' Surely no person conversant in literary history would wish to increase Mrs. Centlivre's acquaintance, by dividing Eustace Budgell into two persons.

From early habits of seclusion, it became the choice of Catherine: ordinary amusements and occupations were tasteless to a spirit wrought to higher views and purposes: great delicacy, talents, and sensibility, united in the female mind, rarely fail to inspire a distaste for common intercourse. From the world of frivolity, flattery, and dissipation, she shrunk back to a more improving world of her own. In the course of her historical studies, the pictures of vice and turpitude which occasionally presented themselves, while they roused her indignation, excited the astonishment of her inexperienced heart; the feelings of which were called forth, exercised, and exalted. The history of the despotism and tyranny of a few individuals, and the slavish subjection of uncounted millions, their passive acquiescence, their sufferings, and their wrongs, appeared to her a moral problem, which she had no instruments to solve. She had yet to learn the force of prescription, of habit, and of association, the imitative and progressive nature of the human mind, and the complicated springs by which it is set in motion. She deeply reflected on the subject of government, with its influence on the happiness and virtue of mankind: she became anxious that the distance should be diminished that separates man from man; and to see extended over the whole human race those enlightened sentiments, equal laws, and equitable decisions, that might restore to its due proportion a balance so ill adjusted, and combine with the refinement of a more advanced age the simplicity and virtue of the earlier periods. Fraught with these ideas, and with a heart glowing with good-will towards her species, she took up her pen, and gave to the most interesting portion of the history of her country a new spirit and interest.

A female historian, by its singularity, could not fail to excite attention: she seemed to have stepped out of the province of her sex: curiosity was sharpened, and malevolence provoked. The author was attacked by petty and personal scurrilities, to which it was believed her sex would render her vulnerable. Her talents and powers could not be denied; her beauty was therefore called in question, as if it was at all concerned with the subject; or that, to instruct our understandings, it was necessary at the same time to charm our senses. "She is deformed (said her adversaries, wholly unacquainted with her person), she is unfortunately ugly, she despairs of distinction and admiration as a woman, she seeks, therefore, to encroach on the province of man." "These were the notions," said a lady (Mrs. Arnold) afterwards intimately connected with the historian, "that I was led to entertain of Mrs. Macaulay, previous to my introduction to her acquaintance. Judge then of my surprise, when I saw a woman elegant in her manners, delicate in her person, and with features, if not perfectly beautiful, so fascinating in their expression, as deservedly to rank her face among the higher order of human countenances. Her height was above the middle size, inclining to tall; her shape slender and elegant; the contour of her face, neck, and shoulders, graceful. The form of her face was oval, her complexion delicate, and her skin fine; her hair was of a mild brown, long, and profuse; her nose between the Roman and the Grecian; her mouth small, her chin round, as was the lower part of her face, which made it appear to more advantage in front than in profile. Her eyes were beautiful as imagination can conceive, full of penetration and fire, but their fire softened by the mild-

est beams of benevolence; their colour was a fine dark hazel, and their expression the indication of a superior soul. Infirm health, too often the attendant on an active and highly cultivated understanding, gave to her countenance an extreme delicacy, which was peculiarly interesting. To this delicacy of constitution was added a most amiable sensibility of temper, which rendered her feelingly alive to whatever concerned those with whom she was connected either by nature or by friendship."

"In her friendships, we are told by this lady, Mrs. Macaulay was fervent, disinterested, and sincere; zealous for the prosperity, and for the moral improvement, of those whom she distinguished and loved. She was earnest, constant, and eloquent, in her efforts for rectifying the principles, and enlarging the minds, of her friends and connections. It was her favourite maxim, that universal benevolence, and a liberal way of thinking, were not only essential to the freedom and welfare of society, but to individual virtue, enjoyment, and happiness. There was no arrogance in her exhortations and counsels; her accents were not less mild and persuasive, than her reasoning was energetic and forcible. "In the course," says her friend, from whose communications the present account is extracted, "of my acquaintance with this most intelligent and amiable woman, I had an opportunity of studying every part of her character."

"Towards the latter end of the year 1777, she was ordered by her physicians to the south of France, for the benefit of her health; in which journey Mrs. Arnold accompanied her. A low nervous fever, to which she was subject, had debilitated her frame, without deducting either from the force or activity of her mind. Nothing, during this excursion, escaped her observation; her conversations and remarks were at once acute and profound.

"After crossing the sea, on which she was severely exhausted by sickness, she rested two days at Calais, where she soon experienced, from the change of air, and possibly from the sea sickness itself, a salutary effect. Her fever seemed to have left her, and she suffered in the remainder of her journey to Paris but little inconvenience. She was greatly struck with the different appearance of the inhabitants of the two countries, as also with the face of the country itself. Between Calais and Paris, she looked in vain for the healthy and well-fed peasant, the beautiful and luxuriant meadows, the cultivated farms, and comfortable farm-houses, of her native island. Despotism had palsied the hand of industry: an indigent and miserable people appeared thinly scattered over wild and dreary plains. The reflections which she made on this occasion, raised in her opinion the country which she had quitted; where, in comparative freedom, commerce and the arts grew and flourished. She praised, and quoted, the sentiments and remarks of Dr. Smollet on the same subject. The travellers stopped one day at Chantilly, where they met with two of their friends, and where they had an opportunity of observing a royal residence, and contrasting it with the wretchedness which they had so recently witnessed. Mrs. Macaulay was not in a state of health to bear the fatigue of inspecting the palace. To Dr. Nash, one of the gentlemen whom she met at Chantilly, and who would, with apparent satisfaction, have described to her the curiosities and magnificence of the prince's resi-

dence, she replied (after thanking him courteously for the trouble he was about to give himself), that she would spare him the repetition, since she could receive no pleasure in hearing of the splendour of one mortal, while the misery of thousands pressed upon her recollection.

‘ As they proceeded towards the capital, the face of the country, and the looks of its inhabitants, gradually improved ; but, at the first post-house at which they stopped to change horses, the feelings of the travellers were again excited by the objects which, crowding around their carriage, clamorously implored their charitable donations, while they exhibited in their persons and squalid appearance every variety of want and of human wretchedness. “My God ! my God !” exclaimed Mrs. Macaulay, with a benevolent enthusiasm, bursting into tears, “ have mercy on the works of thine own hand !” She made her servant distribute to them each three livres, and divided among them the provisions she had in the carriage. For some miles after this incident she preserved a profound silence ; at length, taking the hand of her fellow-traveller in hers—“ You, my dear friend,” said she, “ saw yesterday the habitation of the prince of Condé, and his family at dinner !”—She paused, unable to proceed, but by a look that conveyed her meaning more eloquently than words.

‘ The apartments provided for the travellers, near the Luxembourg palace, on their arrival at Paris, were commodious and elegant. Mrs. Macaulay found her health so much amended by the journey, that, in a few days, she collected around her, by her letters of introduction, an agreeable society. Persons of the first rank and eminence were gratified with the opportunity of paying their respects to an Englishwoman, whose talents entitled her to distinction. Among the number of her visitors were the family of the count de Sarsfield ; the dukes of Harcourt and Liancourt ; the chevalier de Rigemont : the abbé Colbert, a descendant of the great financier of that name ; madame Boccage, madame Grigson, &c. with lord Stormont, the English ambassador. Dr. Franklin was at that time in Paris ; Mrs. Macaulay met him several times, among the literati of Paris, at dinners given on her account, but she never received him at her hotel. During a day which she passed at monsieur Turgot’s, with a large party, she was introduced to the celebrated Marmontel, and to the widow of the philosopher Helvetius, a woman of an extraordinary character. In these societies, so congenial to her disposition, she experienced a high gratification, and appeared with peculiar spirit and advantage. The pleasure which she inspired was equally lively with that which she received : the universal information which her conversation displayed, appeared to her auditors not less admirable than her historical acquisitions, and the powers of her mind. Her brilliant talents for conversation, with the variety of her knowledge, and the vivacity of her imagination, rendered her a most interesting and instructive companion.

‘ With a mind too enlightened for bigotry, and an enemy to mere forms of devotion, often absurd, and always spiritless, the freedom with which she delivered her sentiments on these subjects, drew upon her the imputation of scepticism and infidelity. These assertions are declared, by her friend, to have been ill founded, as proved by some passages in her treatise on the “ Immutability of truth.” “ She confirmed the reality of her prepossession,” says the lady already quoted, “ in

favour of the Christian revelation, by the most diligent cultivation of benevolence towards mankind, and the most exact moral rectitude in every action of her life." "She had those hopes, and that confident expectation of her own future happiness, which Christian faith and conscious rectitude only can inspire." In testimony of this opinion, Mrs. Arnold refers to a conversation which passed between herself and Mrs. Macaulay, when her health was in a languishing state, at Abbeville, in their way to Paris. After reproving her friend's too great sensibility and solicitude on her account, "I thought and hoped," said she, "that you viewed my death but as a short separation between virtuous friends, and that your assurance of a re-union with me, in a more perfect state, would have preserved you from being thus severely affected by the idea of my dissolution." She went on to console her companion and fellow-traveller in the same strain—"Consider our parting," said she, "but as a short privation; for, be assured, the friendship of the good will not be dissolved by death: we shall again unite in another life." The feeble state of her frame, and consequent sufferings, she said, naturally led her to these reflections. She considered the present state of being but as the dawning of existence, nor did she shrink from its termination as a subject of terror, but was rather prepared to meet her change with confidence and satisfaction. Her researches, she observed, into the nature of God and of man, and the relations subsisting between them, would have been vain, had it not brought her to this conclusion; vain also would have been her convictions of the truth of the Christian revelation, and the recompence which its author promises to his disciples. She trusted, she declared, in that Being, who had not given her capacities of enjoyment for no adequate end, that he would preserve and support her through the various stages of an everlasting existence. She lamented the prevalence of sense, and the pursuits by which the mind, capable of sublimer flights, was bound down to earth and inferior gratifications. She called upon her friend to observe and to witness, that, in her present enfeebled situation, her prospects grew brighter with her progress towards the grave: she anticipated the period when her spirit, disencumbered of its tenement, should no longer be impeded in its aspirations and researches, and when, in the presence of the Supreme Intelligence, it should find the sources of knowledge, of science, and of beauty, laid open to its view, while its capacities and powers should expand without bounds. In this exalted and visionary strain she continued, at intervals, through the day to expatiate; while she seemed to derive peculiar pleasure from the idea of the future re-union of the virtuous: a cheering and delightful notion to susceptible and tender minds!

Her visit to Paris was critically timed, at the period when Great Britain, at war with her colonies, beheld the French government with a jealous eye. The *habeas corpus* act was also at that time suspended in England. In these circumstances, Mrs. Macaulay was peculiarly cautious to give no offence to the administration of her country, by entering with too much fervor into the cause of the Americans; or by appearing to have any other views in her excursion to France (by which the colonies were assisted and favoured), than for the benefit and restoration of her health. During the six weeks that she remained in

Paris, her apartments were crowded with visitors, and her invitations to dinner daily multiplied. Among the Americans who were at that time numerous in Paris, those who were eminent for their learning or talents seized every opportunity of observing the fair historian, and mingling in the societies she was accustomed to frequent. Apprehensive, from these circumstances, lest her conduct should be misconstrued, and finding her health much amended since she had quitted England, she determined to give up the idea of proceeding southward, and the rather as the season of the year was unfavourable to travelling, and to the accommodations indispensable to an invalid. The end of her journey was in part accomplished, and business rendered her presence necessary at home. These motives combined to influence her to bid adieu to the hospitable societies at Paris, and to return once more to her native land. In a letter to Dr. Franklin, before her departure, she informed him of the motives by which she had been induced to wave the satisfaction of seeing him and his American friends at her hotel. The circumstances of the times, and of her known republican principles, rendered her liable to suspicions; and the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act in England to consequences, which, in the delicate state of her health, could not but prove fatal.—“The whole tenor of my conduct must have convinced you, sir,” says she, towards the conclusion of her letter, “that I should with pleasure sacrifice my life, could it be of any real service to the cause of public freedom. I am now nursing my constitution, to enable me to treat at large, in the history in which I am at present engaged, on our fatal civil war. I am, sir, with profound respect for your great qualities, as a statesman, patriot, and philosopher, yours, &c. &c.”

‘ Having been personally acquainted with the greater number of the celebrated Americans who had visited England, and in the habit of corresponding with those who had distinguished themselves on the other side of the Atlantic, Mrs. Macaulay was very desirous of making a visit to the transatlantic republic; a design which she executed in 1785. She visited nine of the thirteen united states, by whom she was received with kindness and hospitality. She terminated her journey to the south by paying her respects to general Washington, at his seat at Mount Vernon in Virginia. Under the roof of this illustrious man she remained three weeks; and continued to correspond with him during the remainder of her life.

‘ It seemed to have been her intention, after her return to England, to have composed a history of the American contest; for which purpose she had been furnished by general Washington with many materials. It is to be regretted that, thus qualified, she was, by the infirm state of her health for some years prior to her death, prevented from the execution of her plan. She resided during the greater part of the remainder of her life at Binfield in Berkshire; where, after a tedious illness, attended by much suffering, which she supported with exemplary patience and fortitude, she expired, June 22, 1791. She was interred in the chancel of Binfield church, under an elegant marble monument executed by Mr. Bacon.

‘ She was twice married: the first time to Dr. George Macaulay, a physician of some eminence in London; and, after his death, to Mr. William Graham, who had also been educated to the profession.

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of physic, but who afterwards entered into the church. A daughter was the fruit of her first marriage; who gave her hand to captain Gregory, many years a commander in the East-India service, in which he acquired an ample fortune: his wife has since become a widow, with four children.' Vol. v. p. 289.

In this account, the reader will observe that panegyric has, in a great measure, supplanted biographical fidelity. The peculiar circumstances of Mrs. Macaulay's marriages are sunk, by omitting the dates; and even the age of the lady is not mentioned, nor any notice taken of the *success* of her history, which proved to the booksellers a most unfortunate speculation.

From the remarks already made, our opinion of this work may be collected: it is certainly more ample than any preceding work of the kind, and sufficiently copious in entertainment. Curiosity, at least, will be gratified; but the higher purposes of biography have not, in all instances, been studied, nor have the distinctions between greatness and goodness been always preserved. The search has been for heroines—a species of beings, who, with us, stand in no higher favour than heroes, seldom the benefactors, and frequently the disturbers, of the peace of mankind.

ART. VIII.—*Critical Remarks on many important Passages of Scripture: together with Dissertations upon several Subjects, tending to illustrate the Phraseology and Doctrine of the New Testament. By the late Reverend Newcome Cappe. To which are prefixed, Memoirs of his Life, by the Editor, Catharine Cappe. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

HOW different soever may be the opinions entertained on these remarks, and how repugnant soever several of them may be to our own, we will not refuse to this amiable writer the praise and merit of having applied his utmost diligence to acquire a thorough knowledge of those writings to which his life had been dedicated. Naturally cool and dispassionate, he seems, from the account of him prefixed by his biographer, to have been placed in a sphere well calculated for his genius; in which he could cultivate the society of a few friends, by whom he was tenderly beloved; pursue, without fatigue, the more active duties of his profession; and still command time for the prosecution of his favourite studies. The education he received was that of the higher class of dissenters. He was first placed under the excellent tuition of Dr. Doddridge, and then sent to Glasgow; whence, after the completion of his college exercises, he was elected joint mini-

ster of the dissenting chapel at St. Saviour's gate; the duties of which, at the expiration of a year, devolved solely upon himself; and in this situation he remained till the day of his death. No events of importance, except to his family, can be expected to have occurred in a life thus noiseless and regular. It is principally divided by the duties of his more prominent and generally esteemed sermons; which, like his portrait introduced as a frontispiece to this publication, exhibited, in the main, an aspect, mild, uniform, and unruffled.

The chief subjects treated upon, in these two volumes, are the preface to St. John's Gospel—the terms, *kingdom of heaven*, *God*, and *Christ*—Christ in the form of God—regeneration—the Lord's prayer—the temptation—baptism—the mission of John the Baptist—Judaism—the future life of man—the name of Christ—and Christian principles.

Very little variation from the common version is introduced into the preface to St. John's Gospel. 'In the beginning,' is rendered 'from the first;' and, instead of 'all things were made by him,' it is said 'all things were by him; and, without him, was not any that has been.' By interpreting the two commencing words, 'from the first,' our readers naturally anticipate the opinion of the writer, that St. John speaks only of the events of his own times: *the word* is considered to be our Saviour; and his having been *with God* is interpreted, by his having, in such manner, been with him, 'as to be instructed and qualified' by him; and by his having been more particularly with God before he entered on his ministry, and during the forty days and forty nights which he spent in the wilderness. The passage rendered in the common version, 'the word was God,' is here translated 'God was the word;' and it is compared with various passages, in which our Saviour declares his union with the father, and is supposed to be a mere inference from the preceding words. The second verse, in which we expected a fuller explanation, is left with this comment—

'The manner in which a part of the 1st verse is here resumed *again*, seems to favour the idea that there is nothing very weighty in the first clause of that verse, and that it is not to be considered singly, but according to a mode of writing very common with the Hebrews, combined into one proposition with the second clause. "In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth, and the earth was without form," &c.' Vol. i. p. 38.

All things are those things only which relate to the Gospel: *the world* is not the universe; but the Jewish world, which—

'—was not formed by Christ, by any personal power or influence

of his, which could not be before he was in being; yet, if by him who formed the Jewish world, it was formed with any reference or respect to Christ, for any use or service to him, or any interest of his when he should appear, it was not *χαρις αὐτοῦ*, but *δι' αὐτοῦ*. The scriptures of the New Testament every where represent the Jewish dispensation, not as a detached and independent thing, complete in itself and instituted for its own sake; but as being good in its season, and preparatory to the Christian. The promise to Abraham was fulfilled through Christ: the law contained in it, figures, patterns, shadows of good things to come; the body is of Christ.' Vol. i. p. 60.

'The glory, as of the only begotten of the Father,' is rendered—'we beheld his glory, as of the only begotten with the Father:' and this glory with the Father is supposed to be the gift of the Holy Spirit, communicated after the ascension. *Πρωτος* is translated *principal*; and the superiority of Christ over John is stated to consist 'in his designation to bestow the Holy Spirit on his disciples.' The phrase—'who is in the bosom of the Father'—refers to the situation of Christ, at that time no longer in the world, but in the heavens, and 'admitted to such communications with the Father, and honoured with such tokens of his favour, as had never been enjoyed by any of the sons of men.'

Having introduced these variations from the established version, the writer, in his reflexions, observes, generally, that there is no mystery in the doctrine conveyed in this disputed passage, that 'there is nothing in the doctrine of John either sublime or obscure—nothing but what is said by every other evangelist, and every apostle of our Lord, in a great variety of ways; namely, that Christ was sent to men, by God, upon an errand which he was well qualified to execute.' Such an explanation tends also, he thinks, to throw light upon several other passages of supposed equal difficulty; and he instances a vast variety of similar expressions, all of which bear to the same point; and, notwithstanding the higher import we are accustomed to give to them, all merely imply a more peculiar communication between God and Christ, and are not incompatible with the supposition, that it did not anticipate the time of our Saviour's birth.

On the kingdom of God, of heaven, and of Christ, a number of texts are examined; and our author deduces from them, that the kingdom of heaven was to commence before the generation contemporary with our Saviour had passed away, though the precise date of its commencement is not ascertained. The kingdom was said, by him, to be at hand; and, when he entered in his glory, the Holy Spirit was bestowed, and the kingdom of heaven commenced. The communication of the Holy Spirit was the proof of his rule, his regal power, and dignity; and hence a clue is said to be

given to discover the end of it, or the time when, according to St. Paul, he should deliver up the kingdom to his Father. Now this communication of the spirit, and the power of performing miracles, did not subsist beyond the destruction of Jerusalem; and hence the termination of the kingdom is pointed out, by that terrific act of power through which his enemies were subdued to him—the period in which his Gospel was to be left to its own energies and the usual course of God's government. By this hypothesis are interpreted all the passages which are in general supposed to refer to the end of the world and the future state of the wicked.

Agreeably to the same theory, the conversation with Nicodemus is made to refer to very different topics from those to which it is in general applied. Nicodemus wished to recommend himself to some future post in the Messiah's kingdom; and our Saviour, seeing the object of his visit, shows, in figurative language, the impossibility of his being gratified.

‘ Except a man undergo a change as great as might even be denominated a new birth, as great as might be conceived to pass upon him if he could be born again, as great as takes place upon the idolater when he becomes a proselyte to Moses, he cannot share in the honours, or be employed in the ministry of my kingdom.’ Vol. i. p. 216.

The haughty Jew is confounded still more, by another expression—‘ the wind bloweth where it listeth ’—which is made to imply that the spirit, unrestrained and impartial as the wind, will breathe even on the lowest of the people, and will not be confined either to the limits of Judæa, or to the house of Abraham. From this view of the subject, it should seem that it cannot refer to the case of common Christians in every age; and the supposition of modern regeneration is said to be inadmissible, from the following consideration.

§ 1. In that case, to “ see the kingdom of God,” to “ enter into the kingdom of God,” does not signify here as elsewhere (see Matt. v. 19, 20, and many other passages,) to become a minister of the kingdom of Christ, to partake of the Holy Spirit for the confirmation and propagation of the Gospel, to sit with Christ at his table, or on his throne supernaturally qualified to judge, to direct, and rule the twelve tribes of Israel; but must signify to obtain the happiness of a future life, a sense which, I believe, it never bears in Scripture.

‘ 2. The happiness of a future life is made to depend on baptism with water. No man not baptised with water, whatever be his faith or character, not even though he had been baptised with the Holy Spirit, can be saved.

‘ 3. No man who is not born of the Spirit can be saved, and if to be

born of the Spirit, as is affirmed in this very passage, and is put beyond doubt, I think, by other passages of the New Testament, signifies to receive powers superior to those which are derived from the natural birth, then no man can be saved who is not partaker of the Holy Spirit, endued with power from on high, with supernatural light and the power of working miracles, though he has been baptised with water and thus pronounced pure and acceptable in the sight of God, though his faith should be without doubt or error, and his character and conduct even exemplarily holy.

'If to the ministry of this kingdom the Holy Spirit was necessary, then this kingdom of God, that is of heaven, of Christ, was a temporary kingdom and is now over. There are now, none endued with power from on high, therefore no such qualified ministers of this kingdom, therefore no such kingdom existing.' Vol. i. p. 225.

In the remarks on the form of God, a concession is made, which, from the general tenor of the author's writings, we little expected. The term *robbery*, in the expression that Christ 'thought it not robbery to be equal with God,' has been a subject of cavil; but our author finds no difficulty in adapting it to his favourite hypothesis.

'By any thing that I have hitherto seen, I have not been convinced, that the original should be rendered "thought it not a thing to be seized," or, "earnestly coveted;" this is not the natural meaning of the term, which, in the original, answers to "robbery" in the version. That term, according to some, signifies the act of rapine; but, in my apprehension, it is more agreeable to the analogy of the Greek language, to consider it as being of the very same import with another word, ἀρπαγμα, which is of the same form, and differs from it only in the termination, the sense of which is, I believe uniformly, "the thing seized upon," that which is taken by violence, what is wrongfully extorted, the subject of unjust usurpation. Be this however as it may, I do not think that it is much mistranslated in our version. "He did not think," or "he has not thought it robbery," either an injury, or an act of usurpation in respect of any.

"To be equal with God."—It ought to be observed, that the term which is rendered *equal*, should not have been rendered so, for it is the doctrine of reason, and no less the doctrine of Scripture, that there is none in the heavens that can be compared with God; that he is, and that beside him there is none else. In fact, the original signifies only some sort of similarity as appears clearly from John v. 18, where the Jews are represented as enraged against Jesus, for having made himself *equal*, as our version expresses it, in saying that God was his father. In saying this, surely he did not assert that he was equal with God, but only at the utmost that, in a manner, he was like God. It is very well known that in Greek writers, a term which they often apply to men, and which, on the same principles, might be translated as the term in the text is, *equal* to God, signifies nothing more than our expression *godlike*. In the New Testament, "that," which in Luke xx. 36. is "equal to the Angels of God," which we have no reason to believe men are, or ever will be, in Matthew and Mark, is "as

the angels of God." and signifies nothing more than a partial similitude in a very inconsiderable particular." Vol. i. p. 232.

From the opinion entertained by our author of our Saviour's kingdom, our Lord's prayer must have been understood by himself in a sense very different from its general acceptance. If the kingdom of Christ be past, the kingdom which Christians pray for in this prayer must have a reference to something else: but if the expression were intended for the use of the apostles, it was particularly applicable to their circumstances, and to the desire they must have had for the approach of that kingdom, in which they were to bear so distinguished a part. Hence the prayer is referred entirely to the times of our Saviour; and, if the words appertained more particularly to the apostles, the inference, from the form given by our Saviour, is made with great judgement, and deserves the peculiar attention of our dissenters.

' Another lesson which the consideration of this prayer, and of the prescription of it by Christ to his disciples suggests to us, is in favour of prescribed forms of prayer. Christ prescribed a form to his disciples. Do you not on every occasion put words into the mouths of children, and of weak people, to enable them to express decently, perspicuously, and properly, even their own ideas, and their own sentiments? Is it not an advantage, to some at least, to have continually by them forms of words, which having formerly been used to express just ideas, and proper sentiments, may be used by them to express them again, when these ideas and sentiments are re-awakened in their minds and hearts? May not these forms by means of their former application to the purpose, and the connexion they have got with such ideas, and such feelings, become useful even to re-awaken them in our minds? I admit, that by long and careless repetition, without exertion, or attention, that the ideas and affections belonging to them may accompany the words; forms may become a snare to those who use them, and may betray them into the guilt of mocking God, and into the folly of taking merit to themselves, for such hypocritical formality. By such means, forms of devotion may induce languor, heaviness, and inattention, at a time when our souls, and all that is within us, should be called upon to attend the worship of their Maker.

' This, I believe, might every day, in every town, and in every church, be verified and exemplified, in the instance of that very prayer, which is the subject of our present consideration. However, on the general subject, "the use of forms," I will only add, that our judgement on it will not be much misled, if we do but keep it in view, that the prayer is not in the words, but in the thoughts: the prayer consists of the conceptions and feelings of the mind and heart; the form is but the clothing or vehicle of the prayer; and this is equally true, whether the terms are suggested immediately as the conceptions and affections rise, or have been framed before; in both cases, the words are a form; and the form in both cases is words. The form by itself, is words, and nothing more or less; but the thoughts, the ideas, and affections, whether with, or altogether without the form.

are prayer. Now if the form be nothing but the vehicle, or clothing of the prayer; of what importance is it, whether it be old or new; just made, or ready for our use from some very distant period? Indeed, if the prayer itself be what it ought to be, just, serious, and sincere, what imports it whether it has been conceived and felt by others before we were born, or first of all conceived and felt by us?' Vol. ii. p. 31.

In the remarks on the temptation of Christ, it will naturally be expected that the personal appearance of an evil spirit is excluded; and the words attributed to him in the narration represent only the thoughts which might arise in our Saviour's mind, and were repelled on the consideration of the important task he was on the eve of performing. The fast of forty days is reduced to a mere state of abstinence, in which he lived on what occurred to him in the country—'locusts, perhaps, or wild honey, edible vegetables, and accidental aids from the poor inhabitants, cattle-keepers, or the travelers he chanced to fall in with.' Instead of being carried by the devil to the top of the temple, our Saviour is represented only to have walked to Jerusalem, and to have gone up to the battlements of the temple, whence the thought occurred of a sudden manifestation, which was checked by the precept of Scripture—'thou shalt not tempt the Lord thy God.' The origin of an improper thought is therefore not in itself a sin.

'The clouds that shew themselves in the lake as they fly over it, whatever be their aspect, however gay and beautiful, however gloomy and forbidding, convey no qualities to the water; affect not its inherent qualities, leave no permanent effects upon it; contribute nothing to the character of them, neither improving nor depraving them. Thoughts and sentiments are not subjects of moral imputation, when they merely rise involuntarily, and immediately die; but then only, when wrong ones are voluntarily invited, encouraged, and retained; or when right ones are not retained but suppressed, or allowed to slide away.

'But though in those circumstances and affections of the mind of which we speak, there is no guilt to be bewailed and repented of; there may be, or rather must be, much discomfort, and some danger. In respect of things without us, it will be wise and happy for us, to walk circumspectly: in respect of our own thoughts, it will contribute much to the security of our virtue, to our steadiness and improvement in it, and also to our enjoyment of it, to aspire after, and keep up the powerful controul and easy government of our thoughts.' Vol. ii. p. 82.

From this view of our author's opinions, it appears that he took a very extraordinary latitude in discussing every subject under his consideration; and we might select several other topics, on which he differs, not only from the general body of Christians, but from the sect to which he peculiarly

belonged. The cool tranquillity with which every point is examined, excepting, indeed, in one or two instances, is very remarkable; and the writer pursues the even tenor of his way, totally regardless of the shocks he may give to the prejudices or right opinions of others, and leaving the reception or the rejection of his sentiments to those Scriptural proofs which he imagines to be decisive in his favour. Hence he sums up his principles in the following terms.—

‘ The Jews are styled, “ children of the kingdom, of the prophets, of Abraham, of Isaac, and of Jacob;” that is, heirs of prophecies, of the promises, of the kingdom, &c.

‘ This could not be of heavenly happiness in a future life. The Jews had no special promises concerning this. Here, no preference was intended for them.

‘ This kingdom, therefore, is the Messiah's kingdom.

‘ The Messiah's kingdom, was over the house of Jacob: upon the throne of David.

‘ The kingdom of the Messiah commenced at the ascension and exaltation of Jesus, and lasted till the end of the Jewish state.

‘ The kingdom of the Messiah consisted in the extraordinary and miraculous operations of Divine Providence in behalf of Jesus for the establishment of his pretensions, and to confirm the testimony of his ministers concerning him. See Rev. xi. 17 : xii. 10.

‘ The first great act of the Messiah's kingdom, was the effusion of the Holy Spirit; the last, the inundation of Judea and Jerusalem with those calamities that overwhelmed their city, their temple, their polity, and their religion. Through the whole of its duration, it shewed itself in the operations of the Spirit, the miraculous powers by which many, if not all they who, upon the testimony of the apostles, received Jesus as the Messiah, were distinguished, and which were enjoyed by the whole body of believers, the Spirit being given to every man not for himself alone, “ but to profit,” to do good, “ withal.” 1 Cor. xii. 7.

‘ They who received Jesus as the Messiah, were his people, were saved by faith, saved by baptism, by the washing of regeneration; delivered from the wrath to come, elect, purified to him a peculiar people; justified, righteous, (*i. e.* not obnoxious to the wrath coming on the children of disobedience, who knew not God. nor obeyed the Gospel of his son,) taken out of the present evil world into the garner of Christ; saved from their sins, washed from them through the blood of Jesus, *i. e.* saved from the punishment coming on those who should be guilty of rejecting Jesus, and from the bad effects of the natural tendencies of the then general corruption of the people which Jesus called his own, (John i. 2,) and sought to make still more peculiarly his people. They are said to have no condemnation, to have life, not to perish, to have passed from death to life, to have everlasting life; to be heirs of the promises, to partake of a wedding entertainment, to assist at the celebration of an enthronement coronation, or triumphal festival, to be redeemed, (to wit, from among the tribes (nations) that were devoted to destruction,) to have been saved by baptism as in an ark, and thus transferred from an old world devoted to destruction

by Divine judgment, to a new and better world, &c. shut up in a place of safety. Immediately, on their reception of Jesus for the Messiah, they were taken out of danger, they were with the bridegroom and the heir of the kingdom, enjoying the benefits of his personal ministry, whatever they were; continuing to acknowledge him for such, upon his accession to his kingdom, they sat down in the guest-chamber, enjoying the benefits of the Messiah's kingdom: this entertainment continued to be open during the whole period from the ascension, to the end of the Jewish economy, to the invasion of the Roman army; then the door was shut; and on those without (Coloss. iv. 5; 1 Cor. v. 12.) wrath unto the uttermost was to come to their destruction.

' To enter into the kingdom, is to be a minister thereof, to have employment in the administration of its affairs; perhaps particularly, to be an apostle: it is the phrase Christ uses in speaking to those who came to him with a view to recommend themselves to the first places in the Messiah's kingdom; and what he says concerning the qualifications of such officers of his, leads to this explication of the phrase. These ministers of his, are said also, to sit and eat at his table; to sit on twelve thrones judging the twelve tribes of Israel; to sit on his right hand and left.' Vol. ii. p. 403.

' The Gospel dispensation consists of two parts: one particular, the other universal; one, respecting Judaism and the Jews; the other respecting all men equally. The one, the last days; the consummation of the Jewish economy; yet, at the same time, the introduction or commencement of the Christian: the one, the Jewish Gospel, the Gospel of the kingdom; the other, the Christian Gospel, the discovery of life: the one, the days of the Messiah; the other, life eternal: the one, a message by a prophet of the circumcision, (John) to the Jews, that the kingdom promised to their Messiah, was at hand,—that Jesus was the person; that they were required to acknowledge him for such,—that so they should be preserved in some dreadful calamities that were preparing to overwhelm those who refused him,—and in the mean time, for their deference to him should receive from God signal tokens of his acceptance, as well as of his protection in the arrival of that event; the other, the promulgation to all mankind by chosen witnesses, of a future retributory life, exhibited in the instance of Jesus raised from the dead, and brought back by the reassumption of the body that was crucified, to some intercourse with this world.' Vol. ii. p. 409.

' Whatever is essential to Christianity, all the sects of Christians, without one excepted instance, own. It is essential to Christianity, (the Gentile Christianity which consists in receiving Jesus for the life), to believe that he died and rose again, and was empowered to send from heaven the gifts of the Holy Spirit, and nothing else is essential: all the rest is *verbiage*; references to natural religions; quotations from the Old Testament; allusions to prefigurations or customs of the Mosaic economy; or, terms and phrases of the language, people, place, and time. In many respects exceedingly remote from the

language of this western world, and the accuracy of these modern times.

‘What is essential to the Jewish Christianity, (which consists in receiving Jesus for the Messiah promised to the Jews) is to receive him in that character, or to believe in him, notwithstanding the appearances that are against it, and that his kingdom is not to be such as the Jews expected, being not of this world, but to be exercised in the world whither he was going.’ Vol. ii. p. 414.

‘Christian doctrine then, is properly the revelation or promise of a future life of retribution. The discovery, by God, of a fact, that men will not die strictly, but will live, notwithstanding their death out of this world. That which is commonly called the system of Christian doctrines, and essential to the Gospel, has nothing more to do, either with it, or against it, considered as the promise of a future life, than any other speculative opinions, whether false or true, of the least related kind.

‘All the doctrines, properly so called, the truth of which is supposed or admitted, or incidentally taught in Christianity, are doctrines of natural religion, and should stand entirely upon that ground. They are all supposed to be known, or knowable, before the promulgation of Christianity. All that it reveals, is fact.’ Vol. ii. p. 421.

In the course of the work, not less than five hundred passages of Scripture are noticed, and of course explained in a manner favourable to the author's hypothesis. The difficulties attending the general interpretation of the kingdom of Christ are well known: the agreement lately manifested by many eminent divines, in referring the splendid declaration of our Saviour, in one of his most celebrated prophecies, ‘not to the end of the world, but to the destruction of Jerusalem’—the long period of time which has elapsed since the day in which he said that the kingdom of heaven was *at hand*, and no appearance of a kingdom, in the common acceptation of the word, having been seen, within the last thousand years, are, undoubtedly, circumstances calculated to excite our curiosity; and our author's hypothesis deserves the attention of the Christian world. That his opinions on the divinity of our Saviour's character differ from those of almost every known church, ought not to be an obstacle in the consideration of this question. The hypothesis stands independent of such consideration; and whether Christ gave up the kingdom, in his human character, at the end of forty years, or extended his meaning to four thousand from his resurrection, is of no consequence in the discussion of his appropriate divinity. Both the argument advanced in this work, and the manner of treating it, will, from their novelty, at least, be gratifying; and, whether we agree or disagree with the writer, we cannot but admire his patient investi-

gation and accurate reasoning on every subject he has undertaken to illustrate.

ART. IX.—*Original Poems, and Translations; particularly Ambra. From Lorenzo de' Medici. Chiefly by Susanna Watts. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

MISS Watts, if we remember rightly, is the lady who engaged in translating the Jerusalem of Tasso, and published a specimen of her performance some years ago. The specimen was executed with something more than mediocrity; but little encouragement was given her to persevere. Common readers were satisfied with the rhymes of Mr. Hoole; and they who understand the merit of English poetry will not exchange the stanzas of Fairfax for any modern couplets, however highly finished.

This lady, we perceive, still continues her predilection for Italian poetry. To the longest poem in the volume, the following account is prefixed, from Mr. Roscoe's great work.

"Among the poems of Lorenzo de' Medici, which have been preserved for three centuries, in manuscript, in the Laurentian library, and which are given to the publick for the first time at the close of this work, is a beautiful Ovidian allegory, intitled *Ambra*, being the name of a small island, formed by the river Ombrone, near Lorenzo's villa at Poggio Cojano, the destruction of which is the subject of the poem. This favourite spot he had improved and ornamented with great assiduity, and was extremely delighted with the retired situation and romantic aspect of the place. He was not, however, without apprehensions that the rapidity of the river might destroy his improvements; which misfortune he endeavoured to prevent by every possible precaution; but his cares were ineffectual: an inundation took place, and, sweeping away his labours, left him no consolation but that of immortalizing his *Ambra* in the poem now alluded to." P. ii.

The opening of the poem, though it has too many classic allusions, displays considerable genius.

' Fled is that season, which, with ripening ray,
To blushing fruit matur'd the blossoms gay;
No more the leaf its airy station keeps,
But strews th' impoverish'd groves in withering heaps;
Low rustling if, with hasty brushing feet,
The desolated path some hunter beat:—
No more in safety lurks the beast of prey,
The dry disorder'd leaves his track betray.

' Still blooms the laurel 'mid the forest drear,
And the sweet shrub to Cytherea dear;
'Mid the white Alps the fir his verdure shows,
His branches bending with their weight of snows;

To some lone bird the cypress shelter lends,
While with the winds the vigorous pine contends;
The humble juniper, though thorns surround,
The hand that gently crops forbears to wound;
On some sweet sunny hill the olive grows,
Now green, now silver, as the Zephyr blows,
Distinguish'd high o'er all the sylvan scene,
Propitious Nature feeds its constant green.

' The wand'ring birds with strength of wing endued,
O'er trackless seas have led their weary brood;
And show'd them as they pass'd, the sea-born train,
Tritons and Nereids sporting in the main.

' Now night has gain'd the long-contested sway,
And in proud triumph led the shorten'd day;
Begirt with deathless fires she drives on high
Her starry chariot round the tranquil sky,
Soon as her vanquish'd rival's golden wain
Sinks with faint lustre in the azure main:
If Phœbus hither turn his radiant eye,
See, cold Orion's sword his beam defy.
But ah! behind Night's car, in awful state,
Pale troops of Cares and anxious Vigils wait!
And oft, though potent be its opiate pow'r,
Subdue e'n Slumber in the silent hour;
Mock the gay dreams that lull the weary mind,
When adverse Fortune frowns with eye unkind;
Which spreading bright their visionary lure,
Give health and treasure to the sick and poor.

' Ah! wretched he! who thro' the dreary night
With wakeful eye awaits the tardy light!
Though faintly gay some fond idea smile,
And hope of future bliss allure awhile;
Though should at length his weary eye-lids meet,
Exclude the mournful thought, admit the sweet;
Sleep he or wake, the lingering night appears,
Though time still flies, an age of countless years.

' Ah! wretched he! ordain'd, from shore remote,
Through the long night on trackless seas to float;
Where the blind prow the treacherous winds betray,
And the fierce ocean yells, a beast of prey!
With supplicating pray'rs and ardent vows,
He calls Aurora from her antient spouse;
Explores the dark expanse with aching sight,
And counts the footsteps of the slow-pac'd night.' p. 3.

The story itself is a trite Ovidian fable. The damsel *Ambra* one day is bathing in the waters of *Ombrone*: the river-god sees her, comes out from his cavern, steals silently behind her, and catches her by her golden hair. She breaks away, leaving the lock in his hand.

'Light-bounding from the wave, by terror prest,
 She leaves behind her quiver, darts, and vest;
 Her tender feet, endued with matchless speed,
 Nor pointed rock, nor piercing bramble heed:
 In anguish keen the god deluded stands,
 Lifts his sad eye, and grasps his sorrowing hands,

"Ah! cruel hand!" with fond lament he cries,
 As on the plunder'd lock he casts his eyes,
 "Too swift this lovely tress to rend away;
 But ah! too slow that heavenly form to stay!"

'His fatal error wailing thus in vain,
 He hopes his voice at least the maid may gain,
 Though fail his steps—and loud with love-lorn tone,
 Th' enamoured god his tender plaint makes known,

"A river godhead loves thee, beauteous dame!
 Through my cold waves you shot the ardent flame;
 Why, cruel fair one! thus affrighted flee?
 You sought my grateful waves, then shun not me?
 Love you my stream? ah! know, my rocky cave
 Boasts cooler shadows, and a clearer wave;
 My tide allures you—why myself resign?
 Son of great Appenine!—a pow'r divine!"

'Deaf to his prayer, he sees the nymph retreat,
 While fear gives pinions to her snowy feet;
 Inspir'd by love, the rapid god pursues,
 And rolls his torrent where her course he views;
 He sees the pointed stone, the thorny road,
 Her tender foot with piercing anguish goad;
 Still swifter as she spur'd her agile pace,
 The god, more ardent, urg'd th' impetuous chace,

'With panting speed the tender Ambra flies,
 Fleet as the blast that rushes through the skies;
 The slender stem that bears the golden grain,
 Might, on its ear unbent, her foot sustain.
 Ombrone marks her far-receding flight;
 At every step she lessens to his sight:
 When to an ample plain her course she steers,
 No lingering hope to reach the maid appears,
 While o'er impending cliffs and mountains rude,
 His rapid stream the flying fair pursued,
 He hop'd th' opposing rocks some aid would lend,
 And each steep pass his eager chace befriend;
 But when she gain'd th' expanding vale below,
 The wearied river found his course too slow:
 No barrier here her nimble foot delay'd,
 And his keen eye alone o'ertook the maid.' P. 16.

There is a miserable confusion here of the person and the thing personified: it is the god who seises her by the hair,

and the stream that pursues her; presently it is the god again who calls upon Arno, one of his river acquaintance, to assist him. Arno then encircles her with his waters. She, in despair, calls upon Diana, the great agent in all poetical petrifications, and, in consequence, becomes a statue; but how the statue grew, or was metamorphosed into an island, this deponent sayeth not.

In the age of Lorenzo de' Medici, a poem like this might please, because, to the greater number of readers, it would have the effect of novelty; but now it can excite little interest, after 'a thousand and one' nymphs have been in like manner frozen or melted, according to the necessity of the case. The original poem was with much propriety published in Mr. Roscoe's history, where every thing relating to his hero ought to find a place. In itself it reflects little honour upon the country of Dante and Ariosto and Tasso; and we cannot think this version any acquisition to the stores of English literature. Miss Watts translates well; and we would recommend her to choose better originals. The smaller poems of Ariosto or of Tasso would be interesting for the fame of the author, though in themselves they might prove but of ordinary merit. In the lyric writers, and particularly in Filicaja, something might be found, some ore that would stand the fiery trial of translation. We particularly wish to see a good selection of Italian sonnets, of which a very valuable volume might be formed. English readers generally connect the idea of Petrarchal nonsense with the name of an Italian sonnet; but some of the sublimest poems in the language are in that shape—Bettinelli, Manfredi, and Filicaja, are hardly known in this country even by name.

The sonnets of Lorenzo de' Medici, though far inferior to those of the great masters whom we have mentioned, are yet of considerable merit. Miss Watts has translated a very pleasing one.

' Full oft my mind recalls, with tender care,
And memory ever shall preserve the trace,
The vest that wrapt her form, the time, the place,
When first I gaz'd, enraptur'd on my fair:
How then she look'd, thou, Love! art well aware,
For by her side thou kep'st with faithful pace;
Her beauty, virtue, gentleness, and grace,
No fancy can depict, no tongue declare:
O'er her white robe her shining tresses fell;
So sun-beams sporting on the Alpine heights,
Spread o'er the snow in many a golden ray;
But ah! the time, the place, I spare to tell;
'Tis Paradise where'er her foot alights,
And when her beauties shine abroad, 'tis day.' p. 27.

The remaining poems in this volume are trifling pieces produced upon trifling occasions—rhymes of the day upon follies of the day. The following is one of the best.

‘ Rhymes in Praise of Rhyme.

‘ By a Gentleman.

‘ Though we must own, poetic diction
Too oft delights to deal in fiction ;
Yet this is certain, honest Rhyme
Will tell plain truth at any time,
And in one word will oft say more,
Than the best Prose could in a score.
A few plain cases we shall state,
To free this matter from debate.

‘ Mark you yon glutton at a feast ?
And what says Rhyme ? he calls him—*beast* ;
See you yon drunkards swilling wine ?
Rhyme in a moment names them—*swine* ;
When Flavia, not content with four,
Adds a fifth husband to her store,
Rhyme *thinks* a word, but speaks no more ; }
What wants that senator who blusters,
And all his tropes and figures musters,
Against the man who rules the steerage ?
Rhyme whispers in your ear—a *peerage*.
What makes yon patriot strain his lungs,
And bawl as loud as twenty tongues,
To prove his country's *dix* disgrace ?
Rhyme smiling says—a *place, a place*.
When priests above seek their abode,
Yet love to loiter on the road,
And still on lords and statesmen fawn,
Rhyme shakes his head, and whispers—*lawn*.
Which is the nymph, who, soon as seen,
Is hail'd through Europe, beauty's queen,
Before whose charms the fairest fade ?
Rhyme gently sighs—the *British maid*.
Which is the man, whose daring soul
Conducts in war, from pole to pole,
His country's proud triumphant car ?
Rhyme shouts aloud—the *British tar*.’ P. 88.

There is little to censure in this collection of miscellanies, but there is little to praise ; when once read, it will never be recurred to. They should have remained in manuscript : from the cheerfulness and the courtesy of private society, they would have received higher approbation than we can bestow. They have a certain portion of merit, but not enough to preserve them. Parnassus has its deciduous plants,

as well as its laurels. The ephemeræ, though they rise from the waters of Helicon, live but a day.

ART. X. — *Londinium Redivivum; or, an antient History and modern Description of London. Compiled from Parochial Records, Archives of various Foundations, the Harleian MSS. and other authentic Sources. By James Peller Malcolm. Vol. I. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

THE earliest account of London was that of Fitz-Stephen, who died in 1191; and which, after passing through various editions, was published, in a very correct translation, by Mr. Pegge, in 1772. The next was by that indefatigable antiquary John Stow; which, after many additions and improvements by various editors, particularly Strype, was published in its most complete form, in two large volumes folio, in 1754. Since that time, nothing has been done to illustrate the history of the metropolis, or, by recording its many improvements, to retain the memory of its ancient site. Maitland's, although a compilation of considerable merit, is but a compilation; and Dr. Entick, who professed to bring down the last edition to the year 1775, has done little more than continue the historical part, or first volume, by a detail of the political contests occasioned by the administration of lord Bute, and the writings and sufferings of John Wilkes. He did not add an atom to the antiquities or local description. Various compilations might be noticed under the names of 'Histories,' or 'Descriptions of London,' published in the course of the last century; but they are all abridgements, without any new matter, of Stow or Maitland. Two, indeed, must be excepted—the 'New View of London,' two volumes, octavo, 1708, in which we have an architectural description of the churches, as they then stood; and 'London and its Environs described,' in six volumes, octavo, 1761, in which is an architectural description of the modern churches and buildings, and some catalogues of paintings in the houses of the nobility, which, we have been told, Horace Walpole procured. The whole of the articles are thrown into an alphabetical form: but many of them are superficial; and, from the lapse of time, almost all are now become obsolete. Mr. Pennant's pleasant book is well known to our readers: but it is not, and does not pretend to be, a history; although we cannot but wish the author had written it in that or in some other regular form. It produced, indeed, one good effect: several artists were induced to publish a series of views, &c. taken from ancient

prints, to illustrate Pennant; and thus some materials are provided; at an easy rate, for future historians.

We are now invited to the consideration of a work, which is to comprise 'An ancient History and modern Description of London.' What Mr. Malcolm intends is thus modestly expressed in the advertisement.

'Being an ardent admirer of the antient and modern wonders of this great metropolis, I am sanguine enough to hope its attractions may be described once more without producing satiety. That I might present to the world a work worthy of its patronage, I sought for a path which would lead me to unknown facts; whether it is found, and if found whether it has been pursued to any purpose, my readers must decide.' p. i.

We have no hesitation in believing that the decision will be favourable; for, although he has not rendered us independent of the labours of Stow, he has brought together a vast mass of curious matter, little of which had ever been published before, from the most authentic records, from the MSS. in the Museum, from parish registers, and from the archives of St. Paul's, the Abbey, and the Charter-house. That the facts here collected are all of equal importance, is not assumed; nor is it necessary: but, from a pretty attentive perusal, we may affirm, that, with very few exceptions, they all contribute to illustrate the history and manners of our ancestors, and consequently to gratify a species of curiosity which is both innocent and laudable.

The contents of this volume are, the parishes of St. Alphage, London Wall—Allhallows, Thames-street—Allhallows, Lombard-street—St. Andrew Undershaft—St. Mary Axe—St. Bartholomew the Great, and Less—St. Benedict, Gracechurch-street—St. Leonard, East-cheap—St. Botolph, Bishopsgate—and St. Bridget, Fleet-street; with the abbey church of St. Peter, Westminster, and the Charter-house. The reader will perceive that the order is alphabetical; but, for some reasons hinted by the author, not strictly so, as several parishes have not yet been surveyed, which would have appeared under the letter A.

The work commences with some remarks on the increase of London, in which the author adverts to that wonderful proof of the fallacy of conjecture—sir William Petty's 'Political Arithmetic, 1683.' Sir William endeavours to demonstrate that the growth of London must stop of itself before the year 1800; at which time, he adds, the population must exceed *five millions*! We have next a sketch of the improvements projected by the late duke of Bedford on the northern side of the metropolis, the forest discovered under the Isle

of Dogs, and the West-India docks. The following observations on 'London, in a picturesque point of view,' show that our author can make something agreeable of a very unpleasant circumstance.

'Smoke, so great an enemy to all prospects, is the everlasting companion of this great city. Yet is the smoke of London emblematic of its magnificence.

'At times, when the wind, changing from the west to the east, rolls the vast volumes of sulphur towards each other, columns ascend to a great height, in some parts bearing a blue tinge, in others a pale flame colour, and in a third, accumulated and dense, they darken portions of the city, till the back rooms require candles. A resident in London cannot form an idea of the grand and gloomy scene: it must be viewed from the environs.

'In the spring, before fires are discontinued, during a calm day, Vesuvius itself can scarcely exceed this display of smoke. It is pleasing to observe the black streams which issue from the different manufactories; sometimes darting upward, while every trifling current gives graceful undulations; at others rolling in slow movements, blending with the common mass; but when the dreary season of November arrives, and the atmosphere is damp and dark, a change in the wind produces an effect dismal and depressing. The smoke sometimes mixes with the clouds, and then they assume an electric appearance. When the sun breaks through this veil during the summer, its beams have a wonderful effect on the trees and grass; the green is bright, and inconceivably beautiful.

'London is not without attractions on a dark evening; chiefly so in the winter, when a strong south wind prevails. It is then that the innumerable lights in the shops and streets send their rays toward heaven; but, meeting with the smoke depressed by a wet air, they are reflected and multiplied, making an arch of splendour, against which the houses and steeples appear in strong outlines. I have found the reflection so powerful as to dazzle my sight, and make the paths dark and dangerous. A general illumination occasions great brilliancy. The effect was very striking in the nights of the rejoicing in October 1798, for lord Nelson's victory at the Nile. I am at a loss to describe my sensations during the scene; for the light was as amazing as the continued roar of guns was deafening.

'It has been my lot to be in a city while cannon shook our houses, and flames were consuming its suburbs; but the effect was different. The atmosphere over London was a clear light, like the first approach of day; the former fierce and red.

'The sounds of musquetry and pistols in London were incessant. Not so the shotted cannon; each explosion was distinct, shook the windows, and rebounded through the streets.

'Let us now view our subject from the surrounding country; and this should be done on a summer morning before the industrious inhabitants begin their labours. The most perfect and delightful landscape is that from Hampstead-heath, when the wind blows strong from the east. Then it is that the clear bright sand of the fore-ground, broken into a thousand grotesque shapes, gives lustre to the projecting front

of Highgate, topped with verdure, and serving as a first distance, from which in gradual undulations the fields retire, till lost in a blue horizon. Hence, spread before you, are numberless objects to please the most difficult. The suburbs, as advanced guards, meet the eye in all directions, contrasting their fawn-coloured sides with the neighbouring trees. Beyond them reposes in full majesty the main body, with its mighty queen, whose lofty cupola overlooks her phalanx of children, armed with spires of various sizes and beauty, protected to the south by a long chain of hills.

‘ An accurate eye will trace the Thames by the white sails of the shipping.

‘ Another fine view is from the observatory in Greenwich park, well known.

‘ Putney common affords a charming picture, including the towns and river above Westminster. St. Paul's, and the abbey of St. Peter, with several spires, may be grouped in many pleasing forms from this place. The fore-ground is very excellent.

‘ Primrose-hill shews the western parishes to most advantage; but sir Roger de Coverly's "heathenish sight" still exists from St. Paul's upwards.

‘ For a commercial city the ground of London is admirably calculated, though for scenery not so well, the hills being too inconsiderable to shew parts in detail. Any person who hath seen the broken ground at Greenwich will comprehend my meaning. I do not recollect any situation from which London may be looked down on, those of sufficient height being too distant.

‘ The metropolis forms a noble termination to the extensive views from Harrow, Richmond hill, Camberwell, and all the hills from Sutton to Sydenham.

‘ Much of the external splendour of London, I conceive, must have been lost on the suppression of religious houses. Numerous towers and spires were destroyed, and those of the most venerable character. Several attempts to preserve St. John's, Clerkenwell, and St. Augustine's, were without success.

‘ The conflagration of 1666 reduced the number of parish churches considerably. To my taste, Gothic spires and pinnacles are far more picturesque than the modern fashion of erecting Grecian. Many of our market towns will justify this observation, where perhaps three tall steeples enriched with quatrefoils and foliage, and a fourth an embattled tower, abounding with ornaments, rise from houses and trees in a groupe so pleasing, we could almost imagine we were about to enter an imperial city. In fact, I think London extremely deficient in this respect, very few of the spires being of great height, and chiefly without decoration; I beg to be understood to except those of Bow, St. Bride, St. Martin, St. Giles, St. Dunstan in the East, Shore-ditch, and a few others.’ p. 11.

St. Alphage, London Wall, is the first parish described; and to its history a number of very curious particulars are added, with an accurate transcript of the memorials of the dead, and a list of births, marriages, deaths, &c. from the registers. This parish includes an account of Sion-college

and library, and a catalogue of the pictures, with biographical notices. The same plan is observed in the descriptions of Allhallows, Lombard-street, and Thames-street. In the former, a curious relation of George Fox, the celebrated quaker, is transcribed from a MS. in the Museum. —In St. Andrew Undershaft, Mr. Malcolm very naturally invokes the shade of Stow, and makes the following remarks on his monument.

‘ I should have called it alabaster, if Mr. Strype had not asserted it is of a composition baked. The substance has the solidity and sparkling appearance of that valuable stone. Stowe was upwards of eighty when he died; and we are told his beard was originally painted grey. The order of nature is reversed; and, near two hundred years after his interment, his hair becomes jet black. The furrowed features of this excellent statue would warrant the change to grey again, on its receiving another coat of paint; the attitude and expression are so true. The tablet resting on his knees. The real pen placed in his hand, with the gentle inclination of the head, give it incredible animation.’
p. 65.

In this parish, we have an account of the East-India-house, with a print of their original, and comparatively mean, hall.

The history of the Abbey, which follows, is very copious and minute, a variety of monumental notices, inscriptions, pavements, paintings, &c. having been brought to light in the course of our author's painful researches. How far he has improved on the labours of his predecessors, may appear, at least, in one instance, from his description of the tomb of Henry VII.

‘ I shall now attempt a description of this wonderful piece of architecture, where some new perfection may be discovered after the fiftieth examination: and first, the gates of brass. The great gate is divided into sixty-five squares. Those contain pierced crowns and portcullis, the king's initials, fleurs de lis, an eagle, three thistles springing through a coronet, their stalks terminating in seven feathers, three lions, and a crown supported by sprigs of roses. On each division is a rose, and between them dragons. The smaller gates contain twenty-eight squares each, with the above emblems. The two pillars between the gates are twice filleted, and the capitals are foliage. The animals, badges of the king, hold fanciful shields on them, but have lost their heads. The angles of the three arches are all filled with lozenges, circles, and quatrefoils. Thirteen busts of angels crowned extend across the nave; between them are five portcullisses, three roses, and three fleurs de lis, all under crowns. From hence to the roof is filled by a great window of many compartments, so much intersected and arched, that a description would not be comprehended. The upper part contains figures in painted glass, crosses, or crowns, and fleurs de lis, single feathers of the prince of Wales's crest, red and

blue mantles, crowns and portcullis, crowns and garters, crown and red rose, and two roses or wheels full of red, blue, and yellow glass. But little light passes through this window, it is so near the end of the abbey, and covered with dust. Several fragments of pinnacles in glass remain in the arches of the lower divisions, which, I imagine, were parts of the canopies over saints.

‘ The side ailes have four arches hid by the stalls. The clustered pillars between them support great arches on the roof, each of which have twenty-three pendant small semi-quatrefoil arches on their surface.

‘ Four windows, very like the western, fill the spaces next the roof; in all of them painted glass, of three lions, fleurs de lis, and red and blue panes. Under the windows the architect and his sculptor have exerted their utmost abilities; and exquisite indeed are the canopies, niches, and their statues, which they have left for our admiration. There are five between each pillar. Trios of two-part pinnacled buttresses form the divisions. The canopies are semi-sexagons. Their decorations and open work are beautifully delicate; over them is a cornice, and a row of quatrefoils; and the battlement is a rich ornament of leaves. The statues all stand on blank labels; and, although the outline of the pedestals are alike, the tracery and foliage differ in each. Beneath those is the continuation of half-length angels, before described on the west wall.

‘ As many of my readers are most probably unacquainted with the legends of Roman catholic saints, I shall describe the statues as they stand, without appropriating them. Those who are conversant in legends will name them from their emblems. The first five to the north-west are cardinals and divines. The next a figure with St. Peter's keys on his hat. The second one holding a mitre. The third a prelate, whose hand is licked by an imperfect animal. The fourth a fine studious old man, St. Anthony, reading; a pig at his feet; and a prelate blessing a female figure kneeling before him. The next compartment, a bishop reading, with a spindle in one hand, a king, a bishop; a king, and a bishop wresting the dart from Death, who is prostrate under his feet. Under the fourth window, a priest uncovering the oil for extreme unction; St. Lawrence, with the gridiron, reading; a venerable old man, with flowing hair, bearing something (decayed) on a cushion; a priest; and the fifth a female, probably a prioress.

‘ On the south side, commencing at the great arch which separates the nave from the chancel, a king reading, an old man reading, one playing on a pipe or flute, St. Sebastian bound to a tree, and a figure with a bow. Further on, a bishop with his crosier in the left hand, and with his right he holds a crowned head placed on the corner of his robe; a queen; a bishop with a crosier and wallet; a king with a sceptre, and head in his left hand, St. Denys; the fifth a bishop.

‘ Under the third window, the first statue is removed; a bishop reading; St. George and the dragon; a mitred statue supporting a child with a tender and compassionate air; the fifth a priest in a devout attitude. The last window, a female holding a label; a cardinal reading; one with a label; and another cardinal.

‘ There are eight statues belonging to the great arch before men-

tioned, four on each side; two of those are a continuation of the niches, and the others over them. The statues consist of a prelate before a desk, with a lion fawning on them; another reading. Above, two religious about the same employment. Those are on the south. On the opposite side one of the figures is gone; the other is a bishop giving the benediction. The upper ones, reading statues of old men.

‘ The chancel is semi-circular, and consists of five sides. The windows are like the others. The eastern has a painting of an old man in fine colours. The angels, niches, and enrichments, are continued round. The statues are a female saint kneeling, a coroneted female, a monk with a boy singing by his side; one mutilated; a figure bearing a cross in his right hand, and reading; one reading; another with a spear and book, St. Thomas; a fine animated statue consecrating the contents of a chalice; a pilgrim; one reading.

‘ It is with difficulty the eastern figures can be seen, from the cross lights; but the first is St. Peter.

‘ The south-east side has a statue reading, another in meditation, a third giving the benediction, and two bearing what cannot be discerned. The next a female, an old man, a pilgrim, a female holding a tower on her left hand, and reading, and a saint with his book, supported by a cross.

‘ Those seventy-three statues are all so varied in their attitudes, features, and drapery, that it is impossible to say any two are alike. The disposition of their limbs is shewn through the cloathing; and the folds of their robes fall in those bold-marked lines, which is the characteristic of superior sculpture and painting. Why cannot some of our artists follow this art, instead of dividing their drapery like rolls of parchment tied together at one end?


‘ The arch which forms the division between the nave and chancel is bounded by clustered pillars. Its intercolumniation is another proof of the consummate skill of the great architect. The variety and beauty of the divisions I shall attempt to describe, from the base upwards. Two niches are the first ornaments, but the statues are gone. Their pedestals are octagons; the shafts adorned with arched pannels, and the frieze with foliage, fighting dragons, grape vines, and shields with roses. The niches are surmounted by pointed arches foliated. On the pillar between them, angels hold a rose on the north side, and a portcullis on the south; those are supported on the sides by greyhounds and dragons. Two crowns in alto relievo over them have been beaten to pieces. Each niche has two slender pillars on their backs, with delicate groins. Other decorations consist of oak branches and acorns.

‘ Above the great arch over the niches are pannels and quatrefoils, and a frieze of branches and roses, with a cornice and battlements. The next compartment has the arms of Henry VII. under an arch, with the dragon and greyhound as supporters. Two angels issue from the side pillars, and suspend the crown over the arms; but they have been under the fangs of the destroyer on both sides.

‘ Another frieze of branches, with a foliated battlement, crosses the intercolumniation. Higher are two lozenges within squares, each containing four circles, and in them quatrefoils. The next are the angels, and niches over them, which have been noticed before.

' The arch across the roof is filled with pointed pannels in two ranges, divided at intervals by ovals and quatrefoils, containing badges. The extreme lines of the arches are indented with small arches.

' The east ends of the side ailes are formed into beautiful little chapels, before which is the basement of their skreens. The lower part is a range of circles, containing quatrefoils, roses, and fleurs de lis; higher, arches and quatrefoils, with a frieze of dragons, greyhounds, faces, and sprigs; the top embattled. From this other ornaments, forming the top of these circular skreens, once arose. They are for ever lost, and their places supplied with a paling of rough deal; such is the *economy* of our age and the *extravagance* of former times.

' They both had grand altar-pieces; and, wonderful to tell, they have been but little injured. The marks of the altars are visible still. Over them are arched pannels surmounted by quatrefoils; on which is a row of angels, with the king's badges, and above, three superb niches, whose ornaments and canopies are extremely rich. On the top of the middle one is a seated lion, and on the right the greyhound; to the left a dragon. The centre niche on the south chapel is empty; but the right contains a statue, about four feet high, of a venerable man, who reads from a book rested on the hilt of a sword. A mitred figure on the left was probably intended for St. Dionysius; for he supports with much veneration a mitred head which has been cut off. Those are both noble figures, with excellent drapery, and faces full of expression. The sides of the chapels, and the whole of the lower parts of the building, have waved windows, whose ichnography is thus:  The west ends are similar to the east, from the pavement to the angels; above which, they are panneled, and terminate to the shape of the roof in foliaged arches.

' The cieling consists of several circles panneled: and in the centre is a lozenge within a lozenge, containing a circle; and eight quatrefoils round a lozenge, on which is a rich fleur de lis.' p. 129.

The length of this extract must be our excuse for omitting to notice many other discoveries and particulars, in the survey of the abbey, which have the merit of novelty. The following remark, in a note, seems worthy of consideration.

' I am sorry to add that the nave is to be filled between the pillars with isolated monuments. From the hour that the first is introduced I date the destruction of all the beautiful symmetry I have so often admired. Besides, there will be such a confusion of lights, that not one figure will have its due effect in either of the aisles.' p. 175.

We never heard of this design before: it is truly barbarous.

In the history of the parish of St. Bartholomew the Great, Mr. Malcolm transcribes the miracles of St. Bartholomew, from the MS. in the Museum. It affords some account of the customs of the ancient priory, but perhaps might have admitted of abridgement. It is needless to inform many of our readers that this parish abounds in subjects of curiosity

for the antiquary. The church was one of the few which escaped the fire in 1666, but has not escaped the innovating and ruinous hand of modern improvement. Nearly the whole of the matter here collected is new. We shall give only a short specimen concerning the remains of the church and priory.

‘ The eastern side of Smithfield contains a fragment, once an entrance to the church, with beautiful ribs, sculptured into roses and zig-zag ornaments. It serves as a passage to the iron gates of the church-yard, through which the mutilated half of the priory may be seen, fronted by a flimsy skreen of brick, placed against the massy old arches of Norman architecture.

‘ The ground has been raised several feet on the pavement of the old church. The wall on the south side is tolerably perfect, and serves as the back of a public house, now placed where the north cloister stood. An arch was, probably, a door into it. Smoke, and ill usage, have given it the appearance of the ruins of a dungeon.

‘ The tower is of red brick, embattled, with two buttresses. An arched door with a pediment over it, and above several windows; and on the roof of the tower a small turret. The church is stuccoed, and this front has a large door, and very large window.

‘ On turning to the right, we pass along the west side of the cloisters, in an alley, or court, between them and Duck lane. This part is so far demolished that only a few flints are discoverable in the bases of the houses; and the area is a farrago of sheds, walls, &c. &c. On crossing it, through the riding ground of Mr. Wheeler, livery-stable keeper, we find a scene of hateful degradation. Horses tied for the purpose of shoeing to the outside, and horses standing in the inside of the beautiful eastern cloister. Why was not this precious remnant converted into a passage to the church; and thus, in some degree, preserved to its original sacred use? Can London boast such another stable? I hope not. The arches, groins, and key stones, are perfect, most delicate, and exquisitely proportioned, of true Gothic elegance. The sculpture consists of what the plate will better describe than words.

Mr. Wheeler keeps his cloister-stable roof as clean as white-wash will make it, and is very obliging. The cloister is 95 feet long, and 15 broad. The court leads to the close, where we find a modern square; and though we are now directly facing the refectory, not a vestige of antient architecture is visible, that part which projects into the close being faced with brick.

‘ The windows are transformed into large ones of the present fashion. The length is 120 feet, by 30 in breadth. Some idea may be formed of its original state, by the northern half, now a calico-glazier's shop; but the south part is a suite of very good apartments, inhabited by the worthy rector, Mr. Edwardes.

‘ The roof is very strong, and full of timber, and remains nearly as it was when the refectory.

‘ In the N. E. corner of the square, a passage has been cut through the cellars; and here the strength and solidity of the walls may be seen, with massy arches, and stout groins. The cellar of Mr. Edwardes cannot be paralleled in London for coolness and durability.

' At the south end of the east cloister there was a space 53 feet by 26, probably a court, through which the brethren passed to and from the refectory. The above passage turns to the north, where part of the old walls and a battered window that lighted the vaults are still to be seen.

' I am led to suppose, from the crazy lath and plaster buildings that present themselves, and clog up this part, that they were some of the later menial offices, erected perhaps by Bolton. Dark and damp as this place is, one solitary tree lends its shade to veil those neglected ruins.

' The lesser close contained the prior's stables: their exact site is not known. A gateway was standing within the memory of man leading to the wood-yard, kitchens, &c. An antient mulberry-tree grew near it, and beneath its branches the good wives and maids of the parish were wont to promenade. Houses have usurped their place.' p. 288.

The history of St. Botolph, Bishopsgate, is very ample. On the wall of the stairs leading to the north gallery of the church, hangs an old picture of Charles I, emblematically describing his sufferings. Mr. Malcolm gives a minute account of it, but says he can find no mention of it in any of the parish books. The fact, we believe, was—that, after the restoration, similar pictures were placed in many of the churches: there is now one, if we be not mistaken, in Rotherhithe church; and the subject, as Mr. Malcolm has described it, is the same with that of a folding print in the early editions of the *Eikôn Basilike*, one of which now lies before us*. It is a trumpery performance; but was then popular, as a remembrance of the sufferings of that unhappy monarch.

In p. 349 of the history of this parish, Mr. Malcolm gives the following extract from a newspaper of 1663.

' Sept. 7, 1663. This day was laid to sleep with his fathers, in a hole in Bedlam church-yard, the oracle and idoll of the faction, one Henry Jessy, whose body was attended with a strange medley of phanatiques, that met upon the very point of time all at the same instant, to do honour to their departed brother.' p. 349.

Mr. Malcolm might have consulted Wood, Calamy, or even Granger, for a more satisfactory account of Mr. Jessy, who was not more a *phanatique* than the majority of the clergy at that period. But, in this and some other passages, we have perceived an inclination in our author to brand the non-conformists with one general reproach. This may suit the times we live in; but an antiquary ought to surmount prejudices.

The history of the Chartreuse, or Charter-house, is re-

* We are not certain which preceded—the print or the painting. If the former, the painter must have been lamentably deficient in invention.

plete with new matter: but, as it consists of a series of minute particulars and short transcripts, an extract would give but an imperfect idea of its value to the inquisitive reader. The description of the *old court-room* may perhaps add to its visitors.

‘ The old court-room is one of the very few now remaining in London whose decorations are of the time of queen Elizabeth. It is magnificent, though mutilated; and venerable, though the cieling has been white-washed. That bane of antiquity and of all taste has demolished the emblazoned armorial distinctions painted and gilded under the direction of the duke of Norfolk, to whose family they belonged. The cieling is flat; and the crests and supporters, within circular and square pannels, are of stucco. The duke's motto, “*Sola virtus invicta*,” is inscribed at the north end. The walls are hung with tapestry; the clue to the story of which I have not been able to find. A siege is one subject: but, though it is otherwise perfect, the colours have in many places faded, even to obliteration of the figures.

‘ The chimney-piece is most lavishly adorned. The basement is formed by four Tuscan pillars; in the intercolumniations are gilded shields, containing paintings of Mars and Minerva. Over the fireplace are Faith, Hope, and Charity, on pannels of gold. The next division is composed of four Ionic pillars; between them arched pannels, with fanciful gilded ornaments. The pedestals contain paintings of the Annunciation and Last Supper: the figures in those are of gold upon a black ground, and extremely well done. The space between the pedestals is filled by a gold ground, on which Mr. Sutton's arms and initials have been introduced. Scrolls and Cupids fill the intervals. The great centre pannel is of gold; with an oval containing the arms of James the First, and a carved cherubim beneath. I need not add that those were introduced by Mr. Sutton's executors.

‘ Two pillars, half Gothic half Grecian, support the cieling at the upper end of the room, placed there since 1611; near them is a large projecting window of 16 divisions, and two others of eight further south. Mr. Sutton's arms in painted glass adorn them, the date 1614. The only use now made of this apartment is for the anniversary dinner of the founder.

‘ In what other house shall we find so interesting an apartment! Let my reader trace these pages back, and he will see that almost every illustrious character which England has produced, from the time of Henry VIII. down to that of Charles the First, has frequented this room, either as inhabitants, attendants on queen Elizabeth and James the First, as visitors of the illustrious owners, or as governors of Mr. Sutton's charity. During the interregnum all the principals of the factious party have been within it; and since their overthrow, the governors have been men of the first eminence in the law, politicks, and divinity.’ P. 429.

The plates, engraved by Mr. Malcolm to illustrate this work, are:—1. Abbot Ware's Pavement and Fragments; 2. Edward the Confessor on the side of Sebert's Tomb; 3. Altar of St. Blase; 4. Figures on the tomb of Richard the Second; 5. Autographs of Dean Dolben, &c.; 6. Specimens

from an illuminated book; 7. St. Bartholomew's south transept; 8. Inside view of the same; 9. St. Bartholomew's the Less; 10. Autographs of the governors of the Charterhouse. It is needless to add that all these acquisitions are new, except Edward the Confessor, taken, by permission of Mr. Nichols, from an engraving by Schnebbelie, executed in the year 1791.

The sketch we have now given of this work is confessedly imperfect: but, from the nature of the contents, ample justice cannot be done to it by abridgement or analysis. It is a book for record and for consultation; and consists of many thousand notices and minutes, which, separately taken, might appear of little value. We approve, however, the laudable industry of the author; and hope that he will meet with such encouragement as may enable him to persist in his plan, and, which is the chief purpose of it, supply the deficiencies of former writers. In his descriptions, he aims chiefly at fidelity; and we may add that he is, in general, simple and perspicuous. We would not advise, him, however, to wander, as he sometimes does, too much into the affected elegancies of reflexion. We shall not be so fastidious as to point out any of these puerile pertnesses: but he will understand our meaning in this, exhorting him not to attempt *fine writing*. The book is, in every other respect, a most valuable addition to our topographical knowledge of the metropolis.

ART. XI.—*Essay on Irish Bulls.* By Richard Lovell Edgeworth, and Maria Edgeworth. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

THAT other nations make bulls as well as the Irish, is a position so trite and so easily admissible, that we were at first surprised to find a whole volume employed in proving it. Blunders in speech of the bull-kind are the offspring of ignorance or carelessness, and must consequently be committed by the ignorant and careless of whatever nation. That the Irish therefore enjoy a monopoly of blunders, is what few will seriously maintain, although it has suited the minor wits of the jest-book and modern drama to place every thing of this nature to their account. Stories have been multiplied in idea, merely by repetition; and the same story told a hundred times has, with the inconsiderate, amounted to a hundred proofs that an Irishman is 'your only bull-maker.' To disprove this prejudice, appears to be the intention of the work before us, in which we can promise our readers much entertainment, while we have many objections

to the manner in which the Irish are defended, and should certainly not chuse the authors as our counsel in a similar cause.

The point in dispute is, whether the Irish have a characteristic propensity to bull-making, not to be found in other nations. In order to prove that they have not, our authors first consider the etymology of the word *bull*, which they have not been able to discover; and, secondly, they attempt the definition of a bull, which is equally and confessedly unsuccessful. They next make a collection of the *most famous* Irish bulls, and contrast them with English bulls of the same magnitude: but, before we admit this evidence, we must demand proof of the reality of the Irish bulls brought together here, since they appear to have been taken from vulgar jest-books or newspapers, or from those who *remember to have read* in newspapers this or that bull. This is no authority; for it is well known that there now is, and always has been, a set of wits connected with newspapers and magazines, who carry on a regular manufactory of bulls, which they vend to their employers with the *Irish mark* upon them. Our authors have successfully traced some of these to ancient books, although reported of persons living, or who were living very lately. Thus far we agree with them, and reject such evidence as inadmissible. On the other hand, we must also reject some passages from Shakspeare, Milton, and other poets, which are produced as evidence of English bull-making, because they belong to another class, that of extravagant hyperbole.

After this evidence has been exhibited, the trial is interrupted by a story of little Dominic, an Irish boy, educated by a rigid Welch schoolmaster. The story is well told; and the moral is, that 'Irish blunders are never mistakes of the heart.' But why are we interrupted with such a story or such a moral? Has any person ever asserted that Irish bulls are mistakes of the heart? Yet here the evidence appears to close on the part of the defendant; and his counsel now proceed in a train of proofs, which almost induces us to suspect that they had thrown up their briefs, or had been secretly retained on the other side. The accusation was, that the Irish have a characteristic propensity to bull-making; and hitherto the bulls advanced *pro* and *con* have been single expressions, or, to speak in the gentlest terms, slips of the tongue, and many of them perhaps the pure invention of jest-book-makers. The following evidence, brought forward in chap. VIII, is of another kind.

'We lamented in our last chapter, that there is nothing new under the sun, yet, perhaps, the thoughts and phraseology of the following story may not be familiar to the English.

"Plase your honour," says a man, whose head is bound up with a garter, in token and commemoration of his having been at a fair the preceding night—"Plase your honour, it's what I am striving since six o'clock and before, this morning, becaase I'd sooner trouble your honour's honour than any man in all Ireland, on account of your character, and having lived under your family, me and mine, twenty years, aye, say forty again to the back o'that, in the old gentleman's time, as I well remember before I was born; that same time I heard tell of your own honour's riding a little horse in green with your gun before you, a grousing over our town-lands, which was the mill and abbey of Ballynagobogg, though 'tis now set away from me (owing to them that belied my father) to Christy Salmon, becaase he's an Orange-man—or his wife—though he was once (let him deny it who can), to my sartain knowledge, behind the haystack in Tullygore, sworn in a united man by captain Alick, who was hanged—Pace to the dead any how!—Well, not to be talking too much of that now, only for this Christy Salmon, I should be still living under your honour."

"Very likely; but what has all this to do with the present business. If you have any complaint to make against Christy Salmon, make it—if not, let me go to dinner."

"Oh, it would be too bad to be keeping your honour from your dinner, but I'll make your honour sinsible immadiately. It is not of Christy Salmon at all at all I'm talking. May be your honour is not sinsible yet who I am—I am Paddy M'Doole, of the Curragh, and I've been a flax-dresser and dealer since I parted your honour's land, and was last night at the fair of Clonaghilty, where I went just in a quiet way thinking of nothing at all, as any man might, and had my little yarn along with me, my wife's and the girl's year's spinning, and all just hoping to bring them back a few honest shillings as they disarved—none better!—Well, plase your honour, my beast lost a shoe, which brought me late to the fair, but not so late but what it was as throng as ever: you could have walked over the heads of the men, women, and childer, a foot and a horseback, all buying and selling, so I to be sure thought no harm of doing the like, so I makes the best bargain I could of the little hanks for my wife and the girl, and the man I sold them to was just weighing them at the crane and I standing forenent him—success to myself! said I, looking at the shillings I was putting into my waistcoat pocket for my poor family, when up comes the inspector, whom I did not know, I'll take my oath, from Adam, nor couldn't know, becaase he was the deputy inspector, and had been but just made, of which I was ignorant, by this book and all the books that ever were shut and opened—but no matter for that; he seizes my hanks out of the scales, that I had just sold, saying they were unlawful and forfeit, becaase by his watch it was past four o'clock, which I denied to be possible, plase your honour, becaase not one, nor two, nor three, but all the town and country were selling the same as myself in broad day, only when the deputy came up they stopped, which I could not, by rason I did not know him.—"Sir," says I (very civil), "if I had known you it would have been another case, but any how I hope no jantleman will be making it a crime to a poor man to sell his little matter of yarn for his wife and childer after two o'clock, when he did not know it was contrary to law at all at all."

"I gave you notice that it was contrary to law at the fair of Edgers-town," said he.—'I axe your pardon, sir,' said I, 'it was my brother, for I was by.'—With that he calls me liar, and what not, and takes a grip of me and I a grip of my flax, and he had a shilala and I had none, so he gave it me over the head, I crying 'murder! murder!' the while, and clinging to the scales to save me, and they set a swinging and I with them, plase your honour, till the bame comes down a'top o'the back o'my head, and kilt me as your honour sees."

"I see that you are alive still, I think."

"It's not his fault if I am, plase your honour, for he left me for dead, and I am as good as dead still: if it be plasing to your honour to examine my head, you'll be sinsible I'm telling nothing but the truth. Your honour never seen a man kilt as I was and am—all which I am ready (when convanient) to swear before your honour." P. 104.

Now, in order to adjust the comparative merits of different nations in the article of bull-making, or confusion of ideas, it must surely appear necessary to find a parallel for the speech of this complainant. But where will that be found? And, if not to be found, how comes it here, if not as a direct proof of the characteristic propensity which it is the object of this work to rebutt?

The low Irish, we are told, use a language highly figurative; and, as a proof of this, in chap. X. we have, in a tedious story of a shoeblack, a specimen of the slang language of Dublin, an exact counterpart of the slang language of the Old Bailey, Bow-street, and other resorts of thieves and highwaymen. But here are no bulls; and we are therefore at a loss to discover what connexion the story has with the question in point. The Joe Millar story, added as its companion, is one of those vulgar fictions which are common with the makers of newspaper jests and studied extempores. The 'Hibernian Mendicant,' which follows, is yet more out of place. It cannot be too often repeated, that the virtues of the heart are not implicated in the present dispute. We hasten therefore to what is, unfortunately for the defendant, positive proof of the characteristic propensity.

Chapters XIV. and XV. contain a dialogue carried on in a stage-coach by an Englishman, an Irishman, and a Scotchman, relative to the present question. They are men of education, good breeding, and good sense. Nothing passes, therefore, but what is free from indecorum and prejudice. Each very politely wishes to prove his *own* the bull-making nation; but the Irishman is made to gain the victory, by relating (chap. XVI.) a long story, which, if it be allowed to prove any thing, proves decidedly that an Irishman, who has been able to conquer his *brogue*, and speak English like a native of England, cannot by any means get rid of a *propensity* to make *bulls*. The story is indeed a fiction; but, as

it is advanced by the counsel for the defendant at the close of their pleadings; we are bound to receive it as evidence; and sorry to add, that it overturns the whole of the preceding arguments, and especially that in which it is maintained that Irish bulls are principally occasioned by an ignorance of the English language.

The concluding chapter has likewise an unfortunate tendency to favour the common prejudices which are the subject of the volume. The authors had adopted the ironical style; and now think it necessary to inform their readers of a circumstance so obvious, that the information is surely not a compliment. Many better compliments, however, are paid to the character of the Irish nation, in which, we trust, every man will join who has had an opportunity of witnessing their generous, good-humoured, and undisguised manners. A list of authors also is appended, of which, it is said, 'Ireland can boast:—but 'we enter into no invidious comparisons; it is our sincere wish to conciliate both countries.'

We have thus attempted to give some idea of the contents of this volume, which we allow to be highly amusing, as a *mélange* of anecdote and little novels; but, as a defence of the Irish from the common imputation, we cannot help thinking it most unsuccessful. We expected, and had a right to expect, that persons who had resided so long in Ireland (the case with our authors) should have produced some genuine, authentic, and natural specimens of the Irish bull, and not have been obliged to resort to the inadmissible evidence of vulgar English jest-books. The English sneerer might have produced such, but he might at the same time have been asked for proofs. Here, this mode of trial is defeated by advancing fiction against fiction; which can never bring any point to a fair issue: and what is yet more unfortunate, this same fiction, this disposable force, is made at last to turn directly in favour of the enemy. If this be not a *practical bull*, we have read chap. IX. (On Practical Bulls) to no purpose.

ART. XII.—'ΕΙΣ ΘΕΟΣ, ΗΙΣ ΜΕΘΥΝΗΣ; or an Attempt to shew how far the philosophical Notion of a Plurality of Worlds is consistent, or not so, with the Language of the Holy Scriptures. By the Rev. Edward Nares, A. M. &c. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Rivingtons.

TO believe in the motion of the earth, or to suppose that the various bodies in the expanse of heaven were formed for any other purpose than the accommodation of the inhabitants of this planet, was formerly a grievous heresy; and Galileo expiated his offence in the dungeons of the Inquisi-

tion. A more liberal spirit has, however, been adopted for the last two centuries; and we are permitted to expatiate on the glories of the universe without being suspected of violating the principles of religion. The discoveries which have successively been made from Galileo to Herschel compel us to relinquish the idea that the heavenly bodies are all created for the use of man; and the multitudes of systems detected lead to much higher opinions of the greatness of their Maker. A natural inquiry hence arises, for what purposes are they then created? Are they the habitations of animated and rational beings? Is there any analogy between them, in this respect, and our own planet? The inquiry is, at least, harmless; but our present limited knowledge, and perhaps faculties, do not permit the gratification of such curiosity. They are too far removed from us, indeed, to allow of any insight into their structure, and much less to give us an opportunity of discovering any works of art, whence we might infer the existence of the artist. We must look therefore to other quarters for information; and our author, with this view, applies to the Scriptures, and conceives that he has not only discovered an accurate answer to all such questions, but is hence become acquainted with a very material part of the Creator's economy in respect to the inhabitants of these remote spheres, and finds that the whole is connected with the history of our own sister planet.

To one part of our author's hypothesis we most fully assent, and readily allow that the doctrine of a plurality of worlds is not contradicted by any passage in the Scriptures; but, when he endeavours to extend our Saviour's mediation from the scene on which it was operated to the remotest regions of space, when he considers this not only as an institution between God and man, but more largely between the Creator and the created, exist wherever they may, we confess that our faith is staggered, and that we require very strong proofs before we embrace such an extraordinary doctrine—proofs, indeed, which we have not found in the work before us; while the multifarious learning introduced seems to be of little use in a question which must at last depend on the interpretation of a few passages in the Scriptures themselves, and which are not involved in any great degree of obscurity.

In an inquiry of this kind, the knowledge actually communicated by the sacred writers, on the subject of the world or worlds, is to be first examined; and here the very beginning of Genesis presents a passage which, in the present work, is made to bend to the opinion of a plurality of worlds; since the original Hebrew word, which is translated '*heaven*,' is itself in the plural number. We do not see, however, any

advantage obtained by supposing that the plural noun expresses a plurality of objects; for, whether *heaven* or *heavens* be meant by the term, it only signifies either the collection of those bodies apparently in the expanse, or the expanse itself; and, whatever the number of expanses, we are still not nearer the solution of our question, whether inhabitants are to be found in any of them. Other Hebrew words for *world* are examined; and of course the object is to give them the most extensive signification. Thus *עוֹלָם* and *עֲלָם* are pressed into the service, but, we fear, to very little purpose; for their obvious signification is *age*; and the Hebrew expression for the present and the future world leads only to two portions of duration, marked out by the dispensations of Moses and the Messiah.

The words of Scripture, in their lowest sense, being supposed, however, sufficient for the doctrine of the plurality, the question of their inhabitants must be determined by more decisive language; and Nehemiah, ix. 6, is brought as the first proof to this purpose. In this verse the *host of heaven* is said to worship God; and in the sentence before, God is said to have given life to them. Hence, as life and worship are attributed to the host of heaven, as well as things in the earth and the seas, it seems to be established, that there must be living and rational inhabitants in the higher worlds: but it may be here objected, that, as the words *כָּל־מַחֲיָה אֶת־כָּל־בָּרָא* apply to the earth and seas, which are clearly inanimate, it is evident that they imply only, that whatever possesses life, either in earth or heaven, receives its life from God; and the worship of the host of heaven may be merely expressive of the obedience of inanimate orbs to his decrees. Our author translates the verse, 'Thou hast made the *worlds*, the universe of *worlds*, with all their inhabitants; the earth, and all things that are therein; the sea, and all that is therein; and thou fillest the whole with life, and the inhabitants of the *worlds* worship thee.' Many other passages are examined in the same manner. Thus it is said that 'the *heavens* shall praise thy wondrous works, O Lord:' in which the *heavens* are supposed to express *worlds*. But, even with these, many similar passages may be contrasted, which must be understood differently:—thus; 'Praise him sun and moon; praise him waters above the heavens:' in which expressions, inanimate beings are called upon to praise God; and consequently where worship and praise are ascribed to *hosts of heaven*, or *heavens*, or *worlds*, we cannot conclude decisively that any thing more is meant than the ascription of honour, generally, from all creation to the Creator.

From the Old Testament we are conducted to the New;

and the phrase, 'the kingdom of heaven,' is also made very extensive indeed—referring, not to the reign of Christ only over the human race, but to his reign over all the worlds. Yet if from the word *heaven* there a spiritual reign only be intended, our author's hypothesis falls to the ground. In the parable of the tares, since the good seed is the son of man, and the field the world, if the *world* can be taken in the extensive signification of *universe*, then its redemption by Christ must be acknowledged to have been established by an unerring judge: but this is too weak a proof for such an important fact. The same may be observed of other passages where the term *world* is used. The reasoning from the expression is just.

'The sacrifice of the body and blood of Christ was the price paid for the redemption of the sins of the whole world. Here, therefore, where our blessed Lord personally offered up this great atonement, it was reasonable to expect he would require some sensible commemoration. Upon this earth his body was bruised, and his blood was shed: if there are other worlds in the universe, it is impossible for us to know how it may have pleased God to notify to them the sacrifice of the body and blood of Christ; though we have every reason to conclude, that, let the universe be peopled as it may, this sacrifice can have been but "once offered for the sins of the whole world." Thus much, however, the words before us seem manifestly to imply; first, that, with regard to ourselves, the sacramental commemoration of the death of Christ is indispensably required of us, though it shall only be rendered efficacious through the spirit that quickeneth: secondly, that if it should have pleased God, only to notify to other worlds the fact of an atonement, they may still equally have life through the Spirit, and by the efficacy of God's word, revealed and manifested to them in some other way. Many things, therefore, concerning the atonement may exclusively apply to us, who particularly dwell where God was visibly manifest in the flesh; though there can be no doubt, but that this one sacrifice may have been as effectually made known to all the other worlds, and the benefits of it rendered as applicable to their inhabitants, as the only means of grace, provided by the Almighty, for his frail and sinful creatures.' p. 267.

But the strong argument against the ingenious conjectures of our author is founded on the general tenor of the Scriptures. They open with the creation of all things, but leave, from the very commencement, the concerns of other worlds to relate what took place on our own. Few things are recorded; and the chief event is the disobedience of the first man, with an obscure promise of a mediator. This mediator, in due time, made his appearance; and that appearance was necessarily connected with the disobedience of Adam. Let it be allowed that the higher worlds are filled with inhabitants: still what connexion could there be between their lives and that of Adam? and, if his disobedience did not reach to

them, neither can the obedience of our Saviour have an effect on their mode of existence. It is, however, sufficient that our author has clearly proved that the general tenor of Scripture is not adverse to the opinion, that there may be myriads of beings in unnumbered worlds employed in singing the praises of their Creator. Still the mode of their existence, the degree of their powers, are secrets hidden from us; and whether they stand in need of mediation, we need not inquire: but it is reasonable to believe, that, as there is so great a diversity in the inanimate works of God, there may be also as great a variety in his dispensations.

ART. XIII.—*Letters addressed to a Young Man, on his first Entrance into Life, and adapted to the peculiar Circumstances of the present Times. By Mrs. West. 3 Vols. 12mo. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.*

THESE Letters were originally addressed, by a judicious and tender mother, to a son entering into life. In an improved and enlarged form, they are now offered to the public. This change, though it lessens the interest they would inspire, renders them more useful. We lose the little characteristic traits which would connect us with the object of her anxious care, and we meet with instructions more general than could be adapted to a young man in the middle stage of life. We consider, however, these Letters as truly valuable, and would strongly recommend them to the attention of our younger friends. They are adapted to any period between the age of fifteen and twenty.

What we regard as of great importance, and what renders the present Letters still more valuable, is the sound judgement that pervades the religious and historical remarks. Equally distant from exaggerated praise and indiscriminate censure, Mrs. West duly appreciates the characters and manners of our ancestors; and can find, in the pride of the feudal lord and the luxury of the lazy abbot, qualities which could soften the wants of the poor and the distress of the afflicted. Her religious sentiments are equally rational and just. We shall select a specimen of our author's cool judgement.

‘ I have ever warned you, my dear child, against the illiberality of general reproach: and the design in these instances of abuse is so nefarious, that contempt seems too cold a censure of such pitiful endeavours to acquire fame and emolument, by increasing the delirium which induces people to hate what is high, and to despise what is old. I would advise you to read with qualifying considerations what even our histories tell us of the depravity of the Roman-catholic clergy prior

to the Reformation. The narratives which will fall under your eye are detailed by protestants ; and when we consider how oppressive the hierarchy of the church of Rome was, and how much the political conduct of its sons had exasperated the minds of the people, we can scarcely wonder, that, when those people came to discover by what a fraudulent system they had been oppressed, their resentment should not be wholly confined to detecting the real guilt and folly of popery, but should frequently burst out in invectives against its ministers, which were too general to be strictly just. Most of the first reformers were men of great sincerity and austere manners ; their passions, which seem to have been naturally strong, were irritated by cruel, unjust oppression, and heightened by that holy zeal for divine truth, which prompted them to brave danger and death in its defence. Allowing for the imperfections incident to human nature, we must admit, that the portraits which Luther and others exhibit of their opponents and persecutors are in danger of being overcharged.

‘ In these more tranquil times, the reformed religion appeals to the oracles of God in proof of its pre-eminence, not to the depravity of the Roman-catholic clergy.

‘ Do not, however, think me an apologist for the crimes that have been clearly proved against the religious of those times. I shudder at the dreadful recital ; but, when we consider what a numerous body they then were, I think candour obliges us to refrain from stigmatizing them with universal odium. The doctrine which I would enforce is, that as people who have the least temptations to vice are generally most virtuous, and as those who know a little of their duty are more likely to practise it than those who are totally ignorant ; so the recluse life of the monk, and the small share of learning which he possessed, were likely to make him a better man than those who were engaged in the scenes of contention which England then exhibited, and who knew nothing but what they derived from their spiritual instructors. If the monastery often “ cozen’d folly and shelter’d fraud,” a little reflection, and attention to historical facts, must convince you, that it still more frequently sheltered the unfortunate, and fed the hungry. What amiable pictures do travellers through thinly-peopled and distracted countries often give us, of the piety, benevolence, resignation, industry, and hospitality of some venerable fathers, whose recluse convent, pitched upon a lofty precipice, is respected by conflicting tribes, and preserves an aspect of security against danger and dismay ! We should grow enamoured of the description, did not some absurd tale of wonder-working relics, or some species of imposition on the miserable ignorant natives who live near them, impress on our minds the offensive ideas of the spiritual tyranny and superstition of those who yet retain the only traces of civilized life which these wilds exhibit. And yet, on the whole, notwithstanding their legends and their contributions, these fathers are a blessing to those among whom they reside, teaching them the arts of life, and accumulating a fund out of their present abundance, to provide a store for their future wants.

‘ The situation of England, during the times that I am now speaking of, was very similar to that of the countries which are above described ; and by a parity of reasoning I would infer, that, as human nature, under the same degree of civilization, generally presents the

same aspect, a few instances (for, when so numerous a body is implicated, many hundred instances are but few) of atrocious guilt, even supported by indisputable evidence, should not induce a candid mind to believe, that, generally speaking, the monastic orders were unlike what we now find them to be in similar situations and circumstances: at least the daubings of deistical fiction are no proof to the contrary. Scorning such substitutions of fact, let us consider them as men living in a very dark period, and let us not be so unjust as to try them by the light which we now possess. It would be uncandid to believe, that they wilfully supported popery while they thought it to be a most iniquitous perversion of divine truth. We have certain grounds for knowing, that they had not sufficient learning to detect its fallacy. They took the matter upon trust; and, with respect to the fraudulent miracles by which they imposed upon the people, we know, that a zeal without knowledge is always blind. The vitiated principles of the church justified the inventor of these tricks, who was at liberty to do evil if it were productive of future good. But, in most instances, the propagators of these pious frauds were rather credulous dupes, than ambitious impostors.' Vol. i. p. 127.

We have preferred a long extract to numerous quotations, which would at least present a mutilated figure. We mean it, however, as a specimen only, and would wish the reader to peruse the whole entire.

The second volume relates chiefly to religion; and we have said that our author's religious sentiments are just and rational. Perhaps the disquisition on the Articles is too extensive; and that which derives the authenticity of Revelation, from natural appearances, too short and unsatisfactory.

The third volume relates to manners, to general literature, and to the new philosophy. Mrs. West's opinions on these points merit our commendation. She will excuse us for differing from her respecting the '*conspiracy*' of the Encyclopedists against religion; and will admit, that we cannot *cordially* agree with her remarks on reviews and reviewers. If reading this article do not give a little pang of remorse for indiscriminate—we were going to add unjust—accusation, we shall think her heart more callous than we should, from her general productions, expect. We leave the whole, however, to her own feelings. Ours, we own, have been wounded; and we may add, in the words of the poet, that she has—

——— 'shot her arrows o'er the house,
And hurt her brother.'

ART. XIV.—*Travels in the United States of America: commencing in the Year 1793, and ending in 1797. With the Author's Journals of his two Voyages across the Atlantic. By William Priest. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

WE have been greatly amused with this little work, though we cannot promise our readers much additional information from the perusal. It is a miniature picture, or rather a painting of the Dutch school, where we find the more familiar traits, that a superior artist would have overlooked or despised. The author has examined more closely the features of the Americans and their country, than former authors, and has copied them with fidelity. We were entertained by the progressive history of the settler, the splenetic Indian, the accounts of the fisheries, &c.; but Mr. Priest has laid various authors under contribution, somewhat too unreasonably for the bulk of the work. We shall select a specimen in his own profession, that of a musician. It is a very entertaining one.

‘ Prepared as I was to hear something extraordinary from these animals, I confess the first frog concert I heard in America was so much beyond any thing I could conceive of the powers of these musicians, that I was truly astonished. This performance was *al fresco*, and took place on the night of the 18th instant, in a large swamp, where there were at least ten thousand performers; and I really believe not two exactly in the same pitch, if the octave can possibly admit of so many divisions or shades of semitones. An Hibernian musician, who, like myself, was present for the first time at this concert of antimusic, exclaimed, “ By Jasus, but they stop out of tune to a nicety !”

‘ I have been since informed by an amateur, who resided many years in this country, and made this species of music his peculiar study, that on these occasions the treble is performed by the tree-frogs, the smallest and most beautiful species; they are always of the same colour as the bark of the tree they inhabit, and their note is not unlike the chirp of a cricket: the next in size are our counter tenors; they have a note resembling the setting of a saw. A still larger species sing tenor; and the under part is supported by the bull-frogs; which are as large as a man’s foot, and bellow out the bass in a tone as loud and sonorous as that of the animal from which they take their name.

‘ To an Englishman lately arrived in this country, there are other phenomena, equally curious; as fire-flies, night-hawks, &c.; but, above all, such tremendous peals of thunder and flashes of lightning, as can be conceived only by those who have been in southern latitudes.

‘ I have often thought, if an enthusiastic cockney, of weak nerves, who had never been out of the sound of Bow bell, could suddenly be conveyed from his bed, in the middle of the night, and laid, fast asleep, in an American swamp, he would, on waking, fancy himself in the

infernal regions: his first sensation would be from the stings of a myriad of mosquitoes; waking with the smart, his ears would be assailed with the horrid noises of the frogs; on lifting up his eyes he would have a faint view of the night-hawks, flapping their ominous wings over his devoted head, visible only from the glimmering light of the fire-flies, which he would naturally conclude were sparks from the bottomless pit. Nothing would be wanting at this moment to complete the illusion, but one of those dreadful explosions of thunder and lightning, so extravagantly described by Lee, in *Œdipus*.' P. 49.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

ART. 15.—*Guineas an unnecessary and expensive Incumbrance on Commerce; or, the Impolicy of repealing the Bank Restriction Bill considered. The second Edition. To which is added an Appendix, shewing the Influence that the Restriction Bill has upon our Foreign Exchange and Commerce.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1803.

A strange paradox this!—Old rags better than gold!—So revolting a title-page will, we fear, discourage the reading of a very sensible, well-timed, and well-written pamphlet. That guineas are not necessary in commerce, is obvious from well-known fact, that, at the time when guineas were very plentiful, there were many commercial houses which transacted each its concerns, to the amount of more than a hundred thousand pounds a-year, without the appearance of a hundred guineas in their houses. That guineas are an incumbrance in a market, may seem just as good a remark, as that ploughs and waggons are an incumbrance in a farm-yard: but it is certain, that, if every payment in commerce were made in solid gold, the disagreeable effect of such a mode of transacting business would be severely felt and complained of. It is not in itself a matter of any consequence what is made the representative of labour or property, whether gold, silver, copper, shells, or paper; and, as long as there is a reciprocity of confidence, whatever boasts the easiest mode of interchange has the advantage. This confidence is the result of 'approved national and individual honesty;' and, while a nation is in possession of this most excellent character, the easiest mode of transacting business is unquestionably by paper. A very small quantity of metal will suffice for the ordinary occurrences of the day; and the nation will be a gainer by the mechanical employment of that metal, which was before circulated merely as the representative of property. These points are discussed with great strength of reasoning and perspicuity of language in

the work before us; and the whole is summed up in the following propositions, which, the more they are investigated, will the more forcibly lead us to disregard the general clamours against the use of paper-money.

‘ 1st. That public credit is not created or upheld by metallic money :—that specie is not a symbol of public credit; and is a very expensive incumbrance on commerce.

‘ 2dly. That paper money is a convenient, nonexpensive, and most advantageous medium, through which public credit may be circulated, with as much security, as the nature of commerce and public credit can give.

‘ 3dly. That none of the calamities attributed by theorists to an increase of bank notes, have been realized :—nor are they to be feared as long as the grand foundation of public credit, namely, “ honesty and industry,” remain.

‘ 4thly. That a nation which possesses a public credit, capable of circulating its commodities through the medium of signs, which cost comparatively nothing to create and maintain them, enjoys an incalculable advantage over its rivals in commerce; and by its trade in the precious metals, in an uncoined state, can arbitrate the exchange with foreign countries at pleasure.

‘ 5thly. That the abuses of paper credit are corrigible; and being corrected, there can be no excess of paper money, because its quantum must be limited by the wants of the public.’ p. 107.

Hence it is recommended, not only to continue the bank restriction-bill to the beginning of the next session, but to leave it for ever optional to the bank to pay in coin or not. On the general principle, with respect to paper-money, the writer’s sentiments appear to be very tenable; but whether this important advantage should be given to banking-companies, without an equivalent to government, is a question which admits of discussion. Paper-currency depends on confidence. Where there is so great a circulation, as in this country, between the government and almost every individual, as long as government will take paper in lieu of coin, it must retain its value; but, as the real value of this paper rests with government, the stamping of this value seems to be its peculiar concern; and as the effigies of the sovereign gave currency to the guineas, so the mark of government should appear in all paper-currency.

ART. 16.—*Bank Notes. A concise Statement of the Nature and Consequences of the Restriction of paying in Specie at the Bank of England: addressed to the Public in general; and respectfully recommended, in particular, to the serious Attention of the Members of the new Parliament. By a Merchant, 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1802.*

The writer contends very properly, that the argument against the payment of notes at the bank, from the nature of the exchange, is without foundation. But he feels himself at a loss to discover what possible utility can result from the bank’s locking up a few millions of specie, more or less, in their chests. He may well, indeed, feel him-

self at a loss ; and a question naturally arises, Whether the chests of the bank of England do not resemble those of the celebrated bank of Amsterdam, and contain an equal quantity of gold, silver, and precious jewels. The writer does not seem to have investigated the general inquiry, in the preceding article, whether a great quantity of bullion, stamped with the king's image, be or be not desirable.

ART. 17.—*The Picture of Parliament; or, a History of the general Election of 1802. Containing the most remarkable Speeches delivered on the Hustings, or otherwise published; the Names of all the Candidates; the State of the Poll at the Close of each Election; the Number of Voters, and the Decisions of the House of Commons on the Right of Election, in each Borough. To which is added, an alphabetical List of the elected Members, serving as an Index to the Work.* 12mo. 5s. Boards. Griffiths. 1802.

In what sense the picture of the elections of members of parliament can be called a picture of parliament, it would be difficult perhaps for the editor of this useful little work to determine ; and, from the speeches of candidates for a seat in the house of commons, as well as the conduct of many of the constituents of such as are successful, very imperfect must be the sketch of the body which composes our legislature. How small a portion of the people exercise the right of choice, may be clearly seen in this work ; and the general sentiment of the electors and candidates, where a seat has been contested, is as well given, as in so short a compass could be expected. During the present parliament, it will be a useful book of reference ; and it is well calculated to convey necessary information to candidates at future elections. The work would have been rendered still more useful, if the names of the proprietors of boroughs had been inserted, and the leading interests in towns and counties had been mentioned,

RELIGION.

ART. 18.—*A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of Armthorpe, Yorkshire, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By John Whitehouse, Rector of Armthorpe, &c.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

This sermon does credit to the press at Doncaster. From the type, the paper, and the margin, we imagined it to have been printed by order of the house of lords, or, at least, the lord-mayor and common-council of the city of London ; nor do its contents differ much, in style and matter, from some which we have seen introduced by such authority. We read of the 'romantic schemes of republicans and levellers,' and a description of the late war, which, however it may be allowed to be true in this island, will not meet with equal approbation on the continent,

'The aim of the adversary was aggrandisement, increase of territory, and the erection of a new form of government upon the ruin of

all others, which was to be the admiration and envy of the world. With us, the object in view was the preservation of our present constitution, of our laws and liberties; on one side, it was a war of dominion and conquest; on the other, of security and defence.' p. 5.

Philosophy comes in for its share.

' The principles of the new philosophy were therefore to be substituted in the room of Christianity. The speculations of recluse visionaries and metaphysicians were to be adopted and acted upon, as the best means of diffusing more widely general happiness, and of advancing the public good. That gradual amelioration in political society, which can only be the work of time, was discarded, and the experience of ages treated with derision.' p. 6.

This is the vulgar mode of treating the subject, not considering that the head of this new philosophy, Voltaire, so far from being a recluse, lived in the midst of the great world, and was the companion and correspondent of kings and princes. The termination of war is said to have been ' repeatedly attempted by our government, and equitable terms proposed of mutual concession and accommodation, but which were as often rejected with haughtiness and disdain.' But were not terms of peace proposed by France, which were treated, in this country, with similar haughtiness and disdain? After discussing the question of war, the nature of our constitution becomes a subject of panegyric; and, after much extraneous matter, we are at length brought to what ought to be the main point in every Christian's sermon of this description—the government of God manifested in all events of life; and we are encouraged to look up to him, at all times, for support. We are exhorted, also, to pray for the continuance of ' our free monarchy and pure religion.' Now, if the village or town of Armthorpe in Yorkshire be like most of the villages and towns with which we are acquainted, we will venture to say, that not one in ten could understand the language or subject of this discourse; and the majority, we think, had therefore the advantage, since they might return to their homes, to enjoy their own reflexions on the return of peace, uninfected with a vast farrago of political speculations. A good criterion of a sermon, on such an occasion as this, might be drawn from the question, Would it give offence to any Christian community in the world? and is it impossible to compose a sermon on peace, which might be received with equal satisfaction by Christians in this island and on the continent?

ART. 19.—*The Advantages of diffused Knowledge. A Sermon, preached at Scarborough, August 8; and at Kingston upon Hull, December 5, 1802, for the Benefit of two Charity-Schools, instituted at those respective Places for the Education of the Children of the Poor. By Francis Wrangham, M.A. 4to. 1s. 6d. Mawman. 1803.*

This sermon is, with great propriety, dedicated to the learned society of Trinity-college—for its contents are scarcely intelligible to the majority of a congregation at Kingston-upon-Hull. The object of the discourse is to prove that the diffusion of knowledge among the lower

classes will not be injurious to society. The objections of the bigot and the skeptic are repelled. 'The autocrats of Turkey and of Russia, the pontiffs of Rome and the lamas of Thibet, the savage idolaters of of Brahma and Mexitli, the savage *auto da fés* of the Inquisition, the Pierian spring, the Humes and the Voltaires, the Paines and the Volneys, the Plantagenets, the Hales, the Boyles, the Lockes, the Newtons, Eratostratus and Ephesus, the Nile, the Baltic, American gulfs, and the easternmost extremities of Asia, the Cooks and the Nelsons, the navy and the British standard,' all generously co-operate, in the present discourse, for the benefit of the poor children of the two charity-schools; and, if the people at Hull could keep their purses shut against such a display of eloquence and learning, the superintending of these schools must, in future, not apply to scholars to preach their charity-sermons.

ART. 20.—*Remarks on a Pamphlet by Thomas Kipling, D.D. Dean of Peterborough, entitled 'The Articles of the Church of England proved not to be Calvinistic,' By Academicus. 8vo. 1s. Mawman. 1802.*

The virulence of Dr. Kipling's pamphlet was calculated to injure, rather than support, the cause which he undertook to defend; and it has excited an antagonist of better temper and greater powers of reasoning. The contest, indeed, is of too insignificant a nature to engage the attention of the public; and to reconcile or contrast the thirty-nine articles with the writings of Calvin, is a task for which few people of the present day will find either inclination or leisure. The simple and plain question is—Can the articles be maintained, or can they not, on the foundation of the Holy Scriptures? the support of, or opposition to, them, by such an abusive bigot as Calvin, being in itself of no importance. Academicus has indicated several points, in which his adversary, by opposing Calvin, has opposed the Scriptures; and he is advised, in case of another address to the public, to attend to the following necessary particulars:—

'That to charge opponents with holding opinions which they expressly disavow, is a violation of the established rules of literary controversy;—that to revile their characters has no tendency either to convince or to conciliate them;—that to attribute their sentiments or actions to mental derangement is not consistent with humanity or common decency;—and that it is the extreme of rashness to stigmatize their doctrines as blasphemous, without first enquiring whether they are not expressly affirmed in the word of God.' P. 32.

ART. 21.—*Christian Benevolence enforced; in a Sermon preached in the Parish Church of St. Martin, Leicester, on Sunday, October 30, 1802. By Edward Thomas Vaughan, M. A. &c. For the Benefit of a Female Asylum, lately established in that Town. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

'Many persons in the town and neighbourhood of Leicester, commiserating the case of poor girls, (who, being trained up in ignorance and idleness, and exposed in early life to the contagion of bad examples, are unfitted for any useful office in society, and often fall a prey to seduction and prostitution) have opened an asylum for them. The de-

sign is to receive such, above the age of twelve years, as appear to be objects of compassion, to preserve them from those evils to which they are peculiarly liable, to instil into their minds the principles of morality and religion, and to inure them to habits of industry and cheerful obedience, by instructing and employing them in every kind of household work, sewing, getting up linen, &c. which may qualify them to become good servants, or to earn their support in a reputable manner. A house has been prepared for the purpose, in which twelve girls are received, and placed under the care of an intelligent and experienced matron, subject to the entire direction and control of the subscribers.' P. 5.

This benevolent design required, we are sorry to say, the aid of a sermon; and the charitably-disposed will contribute, in some degree, to forward a useful institution, by purchasing this discourse.

ART. 22.—*A Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of Walsall, in the County of Stafford; at the Archdeacon's Visitation, August 12, 1802. By the Reverend Edward Cooper, Rector of Hamstall Ridware, &c. Published by Desire of the Archdeacon, and the Clergy. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

A judicious discourse on the duty of the clergy, to be attentive to the doctrine of the church on justification by faith alone; and to beware of those errors against which the articles on that subject was particularly framed.

ART. 23.—*Death by Sin, but Eternal Life by Jesus Christ, exemplified; in the Substance of two Discourses, delivered August 22, 1802, at Back Street Meeting-House, Horseley-Down. By Henry Hunt. 8vo. 1s. No Bookseller's Name. 1802.*

The subject is glorious: the sentiments are frequently just and good: the style is always, and the matter sometimes, adapted merely to a methodist meeting.

ART. 24.—*Misericordia; or Compassion to the Sorrows of the Heart. By Robert Hawker, D.D. &c. 12mo. 1s. Williams. 1802.*

The Misericordia is an excellent institution, at Plymouth, for the relief of distressed strangers. After removing their corporeal wants, their spiritual necessities are considered; and the following addresses are drawn up, with the view of making them Christians of that denomination which is generally termed *methodistical*.

ART. 25.—*Illustrations of Scriptural Characters: from the four Gospels. By the Rev. R. Polwhele. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cobbett and Morgan. 1802.*

The object of this work is to urge the attention of readers to those characters which infidelity treats with great caprice and wantonness. By placing them in a true point of view, it is hoped that those who

have been deluded by misrepresentation will cultivate a better acquaintance with the histories referred to. The illustrations are well drawn, and cannot fail to be useful to young people.

ART. 26.—*The unrivalled Felicity of the British Empire. A Sermon preached at Salters' Hall, November 7th, 1802, at the Commemoration of our great national Deliverances, annually observed in that Place. By the Reverend James Steven. Published at the Request of some of the Author's Friends. 8vo. 1s. Ogle. 1802.*

This happiness is proved by a comparison between our own country and the Jewish state. The natural advantages, the civil liberties, the religious privileges, and the providential interpositions, are displayed, which have long been enjoyed by the inhabitants of this realm. We do not wish to detract an iota from such a panegyric: but some of its parts naturally force upon our recollection the Spartan adage, on the ease with which the praise of the Athenians may be celebrated at Athens.

AGRICULTURE.

ART. 27.—*Letters and Papers on Agriculture, Planting, &c. Selected from the Correspondence of the Bath and West of England Society, for the Encouragement of Agriculture, Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Originally published in nine Volumes, abridged in two. 2 Vols, 8vo. 17s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

The nine volumes, originally published by the Bath and West-of-England Society, are, in this collection, brought within the shorter compass of two, 'not by a partial selection of particular papers, but by preserving the substance of every one, rejecting only such parts of each as are uninteresting.' We will not pretend to have compared these two with the former nine volumes, their prototypes; but, so far as our recollection assists us, the most important observations seem to be retained; and the present appears to be a valuable abridgement.

ART. 28.—*On the Improvement of poor Soils, read in the Holderness Agricultural Society, June 6, 1796, in Answer to the following Question; 'What is the best Method of cultivating and improving poor Soils, where Lime and Manure cannot be had?' With an Appendix and Notes. By J. Alderson, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Vernor and Hood.*

This is an ingenious little essay; but we cannot admit the author's doctrine in its whole extent. The necessity of a union of earths as vegetable food, because a union is necessary for fluxing by heat, will not admit of an argument. That fences render ground fertile, by obstructing the wind, and 'shaking' the electrical fluid from it, is also too fanciful; and that alders, rushes, and moss, produce iron, is not supported by the slightest evidence. We have reason to think that calces of iron injure the fertility of land, only when in excess. In mo-

derate proportions, they seem to add to it.—Some of our author's ideas, particularly respecting irrigation, are, however, ingenious and just.

ART. 29.—*A Lecture introductory to a Course of Lectures on the Theory and Practice of Agriculture, by a Society of practical Farmers: delivered at the Agricultural Institution, Spring Gardens, on Tuesday, February 8, 1803. 4to. 3s. 6d. White.*

This institution is not designed to rival or interfere with other agricultural societies, or with those of which agriculture is one object. The authors speak, with respect, of those patriotic characters to which the science is so much indebted. They think, however, perhaps with reason, that *viva voce* communications may be more impressive and useful; and they mean, if suitably encouraged, to establish a *dépôt* for the exhibition and communication of the various implements and mechanical improvements in the practice of agricultural operations, with a library comprising every valuable publication on the subject.—The introduction is clear, comprehensive, and judicious.

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 30.—*A popular View of the Structure and Economy of the Human Body: interspersed with Reflections, moral, practical, and miscellaneous; including modern Discoveries, and designed for general Information and Improvement. To which is annexed, an Explanation of Difficult Terms. By John Feltham. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Ginger. 1803.*

We are so often embarrassed by the half-learned pretender, that we are, perhaps, not the most impartial critics of 'popular' works. This, before us, though far too diffuse, is, however, interesting, by the very happy manner in which the descriptions are conveyed. Yet there are too many errors, owing to the extreme complaisance of the author, who trusts, implicitly, every writer who speaks with confidence, and has been popular before this publication commenced.

The frontispice is attractive, though very incorrect in point of drawing; and we do not wonder at the attention of the lady, when we perceive her contemplating the human heart. The instructor has his hand on his heart, but is unable to draw the lady from her study; and she, indeed, seems rather intent on some object more interesting, of which the heart is only a symbol. While we speak of this organ, we may just mention a strange error on this subject, where the author describes the heart as *roving* through the breast, because, in some situations, its beat is not felt at the usual place. On the contrary, it is secured in its situation with peculiar care. Perhaps the picture may have been taken at this moment; and the anxiety in the lady's looks seems to show that she fears a heart *may* rove. The motto to this frontispice, however, baffles our scholarship: we shall transcribe it, as an exercise for the '*seventh form boys*:' we never went beyond the *sixth*.—'*Doctrinâ delectans animam increscit.*'

ART. 31.—*The Edinburgh New Dispensatory: containing*
 1. *The Elements of pharmaceutical Chemistry.* 2. *The Materia Medica; or, an Account of the different Substances employed in Medicine.* 3. *The pharmaceutical Preparations and medicinal Compositions of the latest Editions of the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopæias.* 8vo. 9s. Boards. Robinsons.

While we in vain wait for a pharmaceutical treatise, equally interesting and co-extensive with the later improvements in chemistry, we announce this last edition of the Edinburgh New Dispensatory, not essentially differing from that of 1794. Another Dispensatory, from the same college, is also soon expected; and we may then look for another edition of the present work. Great bodies, however, move with a dignity inconsistent with rapid progress: they threaten long before they strike.

But when we speak of a pharmaceutical treatise, we suspect that we are liable to be misunderstood. What is called *pharmacy* in the present volume, is a body of doctrines calculated for the operator, and the general principles of the subject. The real meaning of the word is the doctrine of the effects of different menstrua on various bodies, so far as they adapt them for medical use, and the changes produced on them, *as medicines*, by the different processes. This is a work of which we have no example in our language, except so far as approaches are made to it in the short imperfect notes added to each process. With such materials in our hands, we trust we shall not be long without an able volume upon this subject.

ART. 32.—*Practical Information on the malignant Scarlet Fever and Sore-throat. In which a new Mode of Treatment is freely communicated.* By E. Peart, M.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller. 1802.

In the preface, Dr. Peart enlarges a little on different medical theories, particularly those of Dr. Cullen, Dr. Darwin, and Dr. Brown. He finds all somewhat embarrassed with difficulties, and, in general, unsatisfactory. The principal information contained in this little work is an effectual remedy for the scarlatina and malignant sore-throat. It consists of a drachm of volatile alkali in two ounces and half of water: the dose, two tea-spoonfuls—the twentieth part of alkali; *viz.* three grains. On the efficacy of this medicine we shall make no remarks. It may be observed, that it was a peculiar epidemic, and the medicine was at first given towards its decline, when medicine is sometimes more effectual. It continued, however, to succeed; and the world is greatly indebted to Dr. Peart for his communication. The author enlarges, with some humour, on the chemical reasoning which the fact will excite, to account for the success of the medicine: but this, as well as the actions of oxygenated remedies, will still remain uncertain. We may, however, ask the author, whether one circumstance may not be properly taken into consideration; *viz.* the comparative facility with which the oxygen may be separated from the different substances, in combination with which it is exhibited.

ART. 33.—*An Account of the Discovery and Operation of a new Medicine for Gout.* 8vo. 4s. sewed. Johnson.

We are not fond of specifics; nor do we implicitly trust to remedies kept as secrets. Yet the gout is a disorder, notwithstanding its numerous martyrs, so little understood even at this time, that we cannot say a cure will be impossible. We are, however, strongly inclined still to doubt, especially as some trials which we have witnessed, though not steady or sufficiently continued, have not supported the pretensions here brought forward.

The present medicine does not, however, rank with quack *arcana*. One physician, Dr. Beddoes, knows the fruit from which it is prepared—for the remedy is a vegetable, and uncompounded. Others are entrusted with it; and men of science, in whose hands it has been placed, speak of it with commendation. The author, too, wishes only to establish its utility, and is then willing to resign the secret, on receiving a proper reward. Should it prove successful, he deserves a very considerable one.

COW POX.

ART. 34.—*A Treatise on the Cow-Pox; containing an Enumeration of the principal Facts in the History of that Disease; the Method of communicating the Infection by Inoculation; and the Means of distinguishing between the genuine and spurious Cow-Pox. Illustrated by Plates.* By George Bell, Surgeon. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Longman and Rees. 1802.

This is a very perspicuous and judicious account of what is hitherto known on the subject of the cow-pox. Mr. G. Bell, the son of Mr. Benjamin Bell of Edinburgh, engages at some length in the subject, and trusts, perhaps a little too indiscriminately, what his predecessors have advanced. We chiefly allude to Dr. Loy's Experiments on the Effects of the Matter of the Grease producing the Cow-pox, and what has been called the 'spurious disease.' On the former, we have sufficiently enlarged; and on the latter subject we would only remark, that we wish the language to be altered. It is either the cow-pox, or not: the distinction should be accurately attended to, and, as our author remarks, the vaccina pustule observed daily. If it be not the vaccina in every period, with its progressive regular changes, it is nothing. The same has been noticed of small-pox, and does not militate against the former rather than the latter disease.

ART. 35.—*Practical Observations on Vaccination: or Inoculation for the Cow-Pock.* By John Redman Coxe, M. D. &c. Embellished with a coloured Engraving, representing a comparative View of the various Stages of the Vaccine and Small-Pox. 8vo. 4s. Philadelphia. 1802.

This is the first work on vaccina that we have seen from the new world. The disease appears there nearly as in Europe; but we think the fever seems a little longer, and sometimes more severe. Dr. Coxe considers the subject with great propriety, though perhaps with a little too much prolixity and minuteness of remark. His observations, however, are judicious and instructive.

EDUCATION.

ART. 36.—*Juvenile Biography: or, Lives of celebrated Children. Inculcating Virtue by eminent Examples from real Life. To which are added Moral Reflections, addressed to the Youth of both Sexes. By Mr. Josse, Professor of the Spanish and French Languages. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Dulau.*

The number of wonderful children in France exceeds very much what we meet with in England, where early years are still regarded as adapted more for air and exercise than sedentary occupations. Locke and Newton are said not to have displayed any extraordinary talents till they had passed their twelfth year; and, what is learned before seven years of age by way of study, is not likely to be of long duration. At the same time, if we do not wish parents to attempt to make prodigies of their children too soon in life, their education is not to be neglected; and this work will show what the human mind is capable of producing in the first stage of its existence. It is not so much to be read by the young as by their parents, to whom it will afford a great fund of amusement.

ART. 37.—*The Parlour Teacher. 12mo. 6d. Darton and Harvey.*

ART. 38.—*The Post Boy. 12mo. 6d. Darton and Harvey.*

Two little A B C books, with suitable engravings.

ART. 39.—*Parental Education; or, Domestic Lessons: a Miscellany, intended for Youth. By E. A. Kendal, Esq. 12mo. 4s. Bound. Hurst. 1803.*

We agree with our author in his ideas of the superior abilities displayed in modern books of amusement, for the young, over those of former years. Yet a great many of these enlightened volumes ought to be discountenanced, if not despised, by all those who profess the religion established in this kingdom. Their writers have too much philosophy to mention the Christian system. What a debt would they have laid on their fellow-citizens, if, while they rejected the superstition of earlier authors in this class, and supplied its place with useful knowledge, they had retained that divine institution, compared with which their own imaginations are but the dream of a sick brain! Mr. Kendal speaks very decorously of *truth* and *virtue*; so did the stoics: but he talks no more than they did of the God of Christians. As their histories are, both of them, pretty ancient, we see not why one of them should be supposed to describe a real person, more than the other: how then comes it to pass, that, in a chapter 'On the Forgiveness of Injuries,' great mention is made of Dion of Syracuse, and not a word said of the vastly superior example of Jesus of Nazareth?

ART. 40.—*A Key to Chambaud's Exercises: being a correct Translation of the various Exercises contained in that Book. By E. J. Voisin. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Longman and Rees. 1805.*

How the translator can call this 'A Key to Chambaud,' we cannot

conceive. A man who should see the books together, without knowing the order of the time in which they were printed, might as well term the volume 'A Key to M. Voisin.' All that we see in this production convinces us that it is worse than useless; for it will either enable an unqualified person to pretend to teach by Chambaud's Exercisès, or it will enable an idle boy to defeat the intentions of a good master.

ART. 41.—*Elements of French Grammar, more especially designed for the Use of the Gentlemen Cadets of the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. By Lewis Catty.* 12mo. 3s. Bound. Johnson. 1802.

Of Mr. Catty's abilities, as a teacher, we certainly ought to think highly, because he is retained in that capacity at the Woolwich Academy: but we see no signs of superiority in his grammar over those that are already in use. In our opinion, Chambaud's was the best division of the tenses, because the most simple. Mr. Catty's indicative mode has a *present*, a *preter-imperfect*, two *preterites*, one *ANTERIOR*, one *preter-pluperfect*, two *futures*, and two *conditionals*. We do not think that the reduction of the parts of speech to eight, by throwing the noun and adnoun, the verb and participle together, is an equivalent for this excessive prolixity.

ART. 42.—*Maternal Instruction, or, Family Conversations, on moral and entertaining Subjects, interspersed with History, Biography, and original Stories. Designed for the Perusal of Youth. By Elizabeth Helme.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

Mrs. Helme has, in this work, made a very pleasing addition to the juvenile library. The conversations are desultory, but selected with much judgement. Every child must be amused by reading them; and to be improved, we think, he cannot fail.

POETRY.

ART. 43.—*The Infidel and Christian Philosophers: or, the last Hours of Voltaire and Addison contrasted. A Poem.* 4to. 1s. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

' See where, encircled by his atheist train,
A wretched prey to agonizing pain,
Upon his death-bed lies, in deep despair,
The celebrated, witty, gay Voltaire!
A man to each succeeding sceptic dear;
Whose arts they follow, and whose name revere!
He who first gave their darling project birth,
Of rooting out religion from the earth;
And, vain of praise by fawning flatt'ers giv'n,
Dar'd hurl defiance in the face of Heav'n.
With specious talents curs'd, in quest of fame,
Lur'd by th' attraction of a guilty name,
He those endowments 'gainst the donor turn'd;
And with infuriate zeal and ardour burn'd,

Each vestige of the Gospel to efface,
 And crush the Saviour of the human race.
 Long time, a stranger to remorse or fear,
 He ran uncheck'd his blasphemous career;
 Beyond conception saw his schemes succeed,
 And inly triumph'd in the impious deed.
 Ev'n then, when, near the summit of desire,
 He fear'd with joy excessive to expire,
 Grown grey with age, and harden'd in his crimes,
 (Example terrible to future times!)
 Sudden he sinks beneath th' avenging rod
 Of a much-injur'd long-forbearing God.
 The season destin'd for probation fled,
 Condemn'd to feel ere number'd with the dead,
 (Immers'd in anguish, hopeless of a cure)
 Some portion of those pains the damn'd endure.' P. 8.

These are tolerable rhymes. The author is, indeed, a better rhymers than reasoner; for he implicitly believes the Jesuitical tales of the abbé Barruel. We are always sorry to see a good cause defended by weak arguments. What could the gentleman, who proves the advantages of Christianity by the fears of the delirious Voltaire and the resignation of Addison, reply, if some Scotch materialist were to rest a defence of atheism upon the calmness of Hume at his death?

ART. 44.—*Poems by the late Mrs. Charles Mathews. Dedicated, by Permission, to the Right Hon. the Countess Fitzwilliam. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1802.*

'How sweet among the woodland scenes to rove,
 When dew-gem'd trees their budding charms display,
 And listen to the thrilling voice of love,
 That floats melodious on the breath of May.
 To mark the bursting germ, the infant flow'r,
 Catch the health-giving breeze of early dawn,
 Mark the bright tints of morn's empurpled hour,
 And stray delighted o'er the spangled lawn.
 O! these are scenes that wake th' approving thought,
 That bid reflection soar on eagle-wing!
 With conscious worth, with sense, and feeling fraught,
 All that e'er peace can give and mem'ry bring.
 Such were the joys, in life's fair morn I knew,
 When every thought was bliss, and every hope was new.' P. 9.

There are poems of considerable merit in this volume: but the authoress is now no more.

ART. 45.—*Floribelle; or, the Tale of the Foreste, a Ballad. In four Parts. In Imitation of the ancient Style. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kirby. 1803.*

The author of these rhymes imitates our old ballads, by the frequent use of repetitions, and by adding a final *e* to most of his words. The story is clumsily contrived, and badly versified.

'The ladye scream'd——the youth was fainte——
 ——Who can the sequel telle?
 'Tis needlesse for the Muse to painte,——
 ——Indeede she cannot welle.' P. 7.

ART. 46.—*Rhyme and Reason; short and original Poems.* 8vo.
 4s. Boards. Blacks and Parry. 1803.

'Lest the ungente reader should think the author of the following poems too arrogant in assuming a claim to "reason" in his rhymes, it may be necessary to state the writer's own ideas on the subject:— By annexing the term *reason*, he presumes to say, that he has endeavoured to put some meaning into his verses; whether it be good, bad, or indifferent, is a question to be decided by the candid critic alone. The writer is not without hope that his gentle readers who are conversant with modern poetry (as it is termed most courteously) will thank him for his attempt to combine rhyme and reason, on the score of novelty. The author declares openly to critics of all descriptions, that he is not so courteous to himself as to think that his poems have the smallest claim to the title of poetry. With respect to the familiarity of his style, the author deems no apology necessary, as slipshod Muses, and other ladies *en déshabille*, or, in plain English, half-dressed, are at present the fashion or rage.' F. v.

These poems are the trifles of a man of talents.

'The Poetical Mistress.

'My Chloe has immortal charms
 Which time and death defy;
 Of ivory are both her arms,
 And a diamond is each eye:

'Her hair of ebony is made,
 Each lock so strong and big,
 That not e'en fashion will persuade
 My nymph to wear a wig:

'Her bosom, all so fair and round,
 Is made of alabaster;
 So no good reason can be found
 To say it will not last her.

'The face of this enchanting maid
 Is one bright damask rose,
 And when it on her cheeks shall fade
 'Twill flourish on her nose!

'For beauty equal and for fame,
 Her praise I'll still rehearse;
 Whose charms are lasting as my flame,
 And deathless as my verse.' P. 54.

'On Chloe's Reserve.

'Let Chloe put on her imperious frown;
 Or, what is worse, resume her treacherous smiles,

I care not, I am posting up to town,
 Saddle my horse—'tis only fifty miles.
 ' Some swains, indeed, would hang themselves on willows,
 Or plunge their noddles into streams so cold ;
 I hate fresh water and salt water billows—
 Pho, these are boyish tricks, and I'm too old !
 ' Chloe would wed me did she think I had wealth—
 Chloe is deep, perhaps, but I am deeper ;
 I'll walk the Mall, and woo some lass by stealth,
 And buy as pure good love, and so much cheaper !' p. 80.

' To my Family Harpsichord.

' Sweet emblem, well thy various notes pourtray
 The chequer'd cares of my domestic day,
 In the rough rumbling cadence of thy base
 My butcher's and my brewer's voice I trace :
 When shriller sounds arise upon mine ear
 My wife's melodious pipe I seem to hear ;
 When to her maids she speaks her sov'reign will,
 Or curtain lectures tell it plainer still,
 Those strains again—ah, no ! they higher soar—
 Some cordials, John ; and shut the nurs'ry door.
 Thus, with my duns, my children, and my wife,
 I play the treble and the bass of life :
 Blest instrument, thy notes and mine are one,
 Save your's have stops, and mine, alas ! have none !' p. 82.

This author evidently knows what a sonnet should be, and should not have classed poems of twelve and sixteen lines under that title. We may add, that, to abuse Peter Pindar, is not very decent in a man who has thought proper to imitate him.

ART. 47.—*Love: an Allegory. To which are added several Poems and Translations. By James Lawrence. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1802.*

A translation of this poem, Mr. Lawrence tells us, met with the most flattering success in Germany. We trust it is less likely to please in England. The world, it seems, was very virtuous and very happy, as long as it was governed by Religion, and as Religion remained on good terms with Love ; but its miseries began when Superstition introduced Chastity, and delivered Love into the custody of the jailor Hymen.

The translation of Mathison's beautiful ode is but poorly executed. This poet, indeed, has, of all the German writers, been the most unfortunate in his translator, except Gæthe, whose Herman and Dorothea was utterly ruined by its execrable version. The ' Poet's Consolation' paraphrases a thought which has been expressed by Waller in his happiest manner. The best thing in the volume is this—

' As gay lord Edward in a lively freak
 Kissed antient Margaret, for the dame was kind,
 He found, although the rose had left her cheek,
 The thorn upon her chin remain behind.' p. 46.

DRAMA.

ART. 48.—*The Fall of Carthage. A Tragedy. First presented at the Theatre, Whitby. With Additions and Corrections. By William Watkins. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Law. 1802.*

This tragedy is upon a noble story. The blank-verse is tolerably constructed, and its faults only such as are common to all indifferent tragedies; but sins of omission are as deadly in poetry as in religion; and this drama must be condemned under the statute against mediocrity.

ART. 49.—*Joseph. A sacred Drama. By W. T. Procter. 8vo. 1s. 6d. No Bookseller's Name. 1802.*

Mr. Procter has unfortunately supposed, that to arrange ten syllables in a line is to write blank-verse.

‘ Call my steward to attend them. Faithful !

[Enter Faithful.

Go 'tend those weary'd trav'lers. They come from
Canaan's far distant clime : but not so far
As to 'scape th' universal famine—Ah !
No. It rages, by divine command, thro'
Many a fated country. Our's is the
Storehouse of supplies—the favour'd spot of
Heav'n's all fructifying smile—decreed, in
God's high council, the repository
Exhaustless, of provision bounteous,
Which he has made to save a famish'd world
From starving ; and the craving appetite,
By pinching hunger ravenous made, to
Satisfy. See yonder, Faithful, they creep
With feeble step ; with difficulty my
Door they'll reach.' P. 8.

NOVELS.

ART. 50.—*Romance of the Pyrenees. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

Whatever has been invented to perplex, astonish, and terrify, sinks into a tame and insipid narrative, when compared with the descriptions before us. It is attempted, however, in the last volume, to reduce the whole to probability, to easy contrivances, and artificial means of exciting terror. The management we cannot highly approve ; the first part is too much heightened ; and it fails of its effect, by the too strong working of the engine. Beyond a certain point, pain ceases, and agony is lost in stupefaction. In the concluding volume, the tale is again told to explain the contrivance, and it palls upon the sense. Numerous improbabilities also, which are not cleared, contribute to disgust us. On the whole, it is the work of no common artist. Much knowledge, in different departments of science, occasionally occurs ; but management, perhaps experience, is requisite to bring

his powers to their proper exertion, without which, the effect must necessarily fail.

ART. 51.—*Nothing New, a Novel, in which is drawn characteristic Sketches from modern and fashionable Life.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Booth. 1802.

‘Ex pede Herculem.’ — The language, through the whole, is equally incorrect, and the incidents most strange and improbable. They *may* be drawn from modern and fashionable life; but it is a life of which we have not the slightest idea.

ART. 52.—*Eccentric Philanthropy, a Novel.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Booth. 1802.

A scion from the German stock, and as stupid and improbable as any of those productions which we have hitherto imported from that country. The hero is at once a libertine and a man of honour—prime-minister to three or four monarchs, not in succession, but of different kingdoms—a natural philosopher, acting the conjurer—the man of science without study, of business without application. The work is decidedly a translation, and far from a correct one. We often catch the original word through the author’s blunders.

ART. 53.—*Celina, or Tale of Mystery, by Ducray-Dumenil.* 4 Vols. 12mo. 16s. Boards. Lane. 1803.

The first two volumes of this work are professedly translated from the French novel which furnished Mr. Holcroft with his celebrated melo-drama, *The Tale of Mystery*. The last two are imitations only, and somewhat faint. On the whole, the work is highly interesting, though the villanous conduct of the Trequelins renders it, occasionally, painful; and we suspect that such tales of villany may sometimes suggest, rather than deter from crimes. The *denouement* is managed with peculiar dexterity.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 54.—*Part the First, of an Address to the Public, from the Society for the Suppression of Vice, instituted, in London, 1802. Setting forth, with a List of the Members, the Utility and Necessity of such an Institution, and its Claim to public Support.* 8vo. 2s. Spragg. 1803.

We have read this calm, persuasive, and dispassionate, Address with great satisfaction. The author’s views are clear, judicious, and discriminated; and the whole plan merits very considerable commendation. We cannot doubt of its meeting with encouragement.

ART. 55.—*Fun for every Day in the Year, or Food for all Palates, a choice Collection of the best Jests and Witticisms.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Hurst.

It cannot be expected that this long bill-of-fare will be found uni-

form and equal through the whole year: if, however, the food on some of the days be but dry and *maigre*, yet very frequently the dishes have a deal of *goût* and seasoning in them.

ART. 56.—*British Liberty; or, Sketches, critical and demonstrative, of the State of English Subjects. To which are annexed, summary Remarks on Revolution, High Treason, and Trial by Jury. Addressed to the People of England generally, and to the Soldiers of his Britannic Majesty's Regiments of Foot-Guards, &c. With an Appendix, containing an interesting Extract from a public Print, and brief Observations on the presumptive Existence of a dangerous Society. By Amicus Patriæ. 12mo. 6d. Neil. 1803.*

How Mr. Amicus Patriæ came to adopt the epithets of *critical* and *demonstrative* for his sketches, we know not; for certainly there is nothing in them examined with any sort of critical skill, nor any thing demonstrated that all the world did not know before. The author says that no country but our own can boast a Greenwich or a Chelsea-Hospital. So far as names go, he is right. We shall take no trouble to go to any other part of the continent to refute him, until he has *demonstrated* to us that 'the Hospital of Invalids' is not in existence at Paris.

'Ever vain and useless will be the attempts of disaffected persons, if there be any such now, to excite rebellion in this country. The immense majority of loyal, patriotic, and well affected people, content with the laws which protect them, will at any period declare themselves against all insurgents, in defence of their king, constitution, lives, and properties.' p. 15.

We did not think, on opening these Sketches, that the writer had sufficient discernment to make this obvious remark; but, as he has, it is a pity he did not save his money instead of spending it to print a book both ridiculous and unnecessary.

ART. 57.—*Gradus ad Cantabrigiam: or, a Dictionary of Terms, academical and colloquial, or Cant, which are used at the University of Cambridge. With a Variety of curious and entertaining Illustrations. 8vo. 3s. Richardson. 1803.*

In a fluctuating body like the university, the age of words is of a much shorter duration than in other places; and, useful as this *Gradus* may be, it cannot, at the utmost, serve nine years—that is to say, three generations of gownsmen. This will not displease the editor, who, in collecting materials for his future work, might insert a little more of the current wit of the university; unless, with the promotion of its celebrated epigrammatist to high magisterial dignity, that article ceases to be current, and is not admitted within the regions of Golgotha.

ART. 58.—*A Collection of Papers intended to promote an Institution for the Cure and Prevention of Infectious Fevers, in Newcastle and other populous Towns, together with the Communications of the most eminent Physicians, relative to the Safety and Importance of annexing Fever-Wards to the Newcastle and other Infirmaries. Parts I. and II. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Murray and Highley.*

This subject has often occurred to us, and the attempt has claimed our highest approbation. We are pleased to observe the unremitting attention paid to it, and wish this benevolent plan every success. The minute details prevent our enlarging further on it.

ART. 59.—*A Meteorological Journal for the Year 1802. By William Bent. 8vo. 2s. Bent.*

Mr. Bent continues his useful observations, and it will be advantageous to compare his observations with those of other meteorologists. In the year 1802, the greatest height of the barometer was, in January, viz. 30.66, and the least, 28.79 in November: the mean, 30.03. The range of the thermometer was from 79° to 26°: the mean 51.2. The mean heat of April 50.9. The hygrometer was from 69 to 35: the mean 54°. The rain only 15.12 inches, of which 3.04 fell in July, and only .23 in January.

ART. 60.—*A general introductory Discourse delivered Tuesday, Nov. 16, 1802, on the Objects, Advantages, and intended Plan of the new Institution for public Lectures on natural Philosophy, in Newcastle-upon-Tyne. By William Turner, one of the Secretaries to the Literary and Philosophical Society of Newcastle, and Lecturer in the new Institution. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1802.*

The introduction is, on the whole, judicious, and 'the advantages' well detailed; yet we think the plan too extensive for amateurs; and such only can be expected in a provincial town. A list of donations and subscriptions is annexed, which we wished to have seen more extensive.

* * * In answer to numerous inquiries, we beg to inform our readers that the continuation of the Criticism on the Grenville Homer will be given in our next Number.

APPENDIX

TO

THE THIRTY-SEVENTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

ART. I.—*Histoire des Mathématiques, &c.*

History of the Mathematics. By J. E. Montucla. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI, p. 494.)

THE invention and construction of logarithms having been treated in the first two volumes of this history, so far as they were brought towards perfection in the seventeenth century, M. Montucla, in the volume before us, describes the improvements that have been made in the course of the last or eighteenth century, by Sherwin, Gardiner, Lalande, Schulze, Vega, Hutton, Taylor, Callet, &c. Among many others, we here find the following curious article: ‘A particular anecdote, which we learn from the preface of Vega, is, that while in Europe the two works of Vlacq, the most complete in their kind, demanded, in consequence of their scarcity, a new edition, which no person dared to undertake, these two works were reprinted in China, and even in the imperial palace, in Chinese characters, and under a title, which in Latin is to this import: *Magnus Canon Logarithmorum, tum pro Sinibus ac Tangentibus ad singula Dena secunda, tum pro Numeris absolutis ab Unitate ad 100,000. Typis Sinenfibus in Aulâ Pekinenfi, Jussu Imperatoris (Kang-hi) excusus, 1721, in three folio volumes, Chinese paper.*’ Of this curious impression, M. Vega has seen a copy at Vienna; and, Montucla adds, we have elsewhere remarked that this emperor was a great admirer, both of the precision of Euclid’s demonstrations, and of the invention of logarithms; and, what perhaps could, at the same time, be said of no European prince, he calculated triangles with great facility.—Taylor’s Logarithms of Sines and Tangents, for every single second, are noticed with due respect. After which, a particular description of the contents of Callet’s beautiful and useful edition is

given; and next the author speaks, with extraordinary applause, of the complete and accurate collection of tables made in this country by Dr. Hutton, which the historian calls *un chef-d'œuvre en ce genre*; adding, that the history of trigonometry and of the invention of logarithms, as well as of the labours and ideas of its principal authors, is extremely curious and interesting; and, besides, brings us acquainted with a great many respectable men but little known on the continent, and who have written very excellent pieces on the mathematics, &c.—We have now, however, continues M. Montucla, to speak of a work still more considerable than any of those yet noticed; namely that undertaken, and in great part executed, under the direction of M. Prony, of the National Institute. This publication consists of the following particulars: 1st, A table of natural sines, calculated to twenty-one decimals, for every ten thousandth part (or each minute in the new division) of the quadrant, with five orders of differences. 2d, A like table for the natural tangents. 3d, A table of the logarithms of numbers, from one to twenty thousand, each to twelve decimals, with three orders of differences. 4th, A table of the logarithmic sines and tangents for each hundred-thousandth (or each second of the new division) of the quadrant, to twelve places of decimals, with three orders of differences. 5th, The logarithms of the ratios of arcs to their sines or tangents, for the first five centiemes (or new degrees) of the quadrant, to twelve decimals, with three orders of differences. 6th, A collection of astronomic tables adapted to the new graduation of the circle.

In the ensuing article the subject of logarithms is continued; exhibiting many new and curious considerations of the modern mathematicians, on the theory and calculation of logarithms; explaining the particular methods of constructing the logarithms by the principal authors, as, Newton, Gregory, Halley, Sharp, Speidell, Euler, &c. In this account we observe the omission of the method of Jones, which is the same in effect as Euler's; and another omission of Halley's antilogarithmic series, or the series which gives the natural number in terms of the logarithm.

Article XXXVII. contains some farther considerations on logarithms; particularly relating to the logarithms of negative quantities, with disputes, on that subject, among Leibnitz, Bernouilli, Euler, d'Alembert, and others.

Art. XXXVIII. enters on the calculation of probabilities and chances. There are few things in the mathematics in which the analytic invention shines more than in the calculation of probabilities. Indeed, if there were any subject that might evade mathematic investigation, it would seem to be that of chances. But what is too arduous for the human mind, assisted by the mathematic genius and the analytic art? This kind of

Proteus, so difficult to fix, the mathematician has at length succeeded in chaining, and submitting to calculation. He has been able to measure the degrees of the probability of certain events; which has given rise to a new theory, perhaps the most useful and the most curious which his mind has produced. For it is of importance in the concerns of life, to know how to discover the specious allurements which the avarice of some men offers to others; either to avoid them ourselves, or to preserve others, who may not perceive them, from being thence imposed on. Even in the fairest and most equal games, it is of consequence for those who would thus amuse themselves, to understand, under different circumstances, how to distinguish the favourable cases, or the contrary, unless they would expose themselves to inevitable losses; and human prudence in this case is merely the art of estimating the probability of events, in order to choose and determine. The explanation of the theory here given by M. Montucla is a splendid example of the truth of these observations. The same subject, in its various branches, is continued through the three remaining articles of this analytic division of the history, in a very ample, clear, and satisfactory manner, with an application to æconomic and political purposes; such as the valuation of annuities, reversions, and expectancies; to the probability of the justice of judgements; to elections, assurances, &c.: in the progress of which, the author has occasion to notice the theories and methods of a variety of celebrated authors, as Pascal, Fermat, Wallis, Huygens, the Bernouillis, Monmort, Demoivre, Euler, Sauveur, Motte, Condorcet, Cramer, Fontaine, Beguelin, d'Alembert, Petty, Halley, Simpson, Lacroix, &c. &c.

Our mathematical historian next enters on the second book of this fifth part, which contains the progress of optics during the 18th century. This book is divided into sixteen articles or sections. In the first, the author takes a general view of the progress of that science in the century adverted to, and of the principal discoveries with which it has enriched us, relating to telescopes, microscopes, the heliostat, heliometer, panoscope, panorama, &c. Before entering on the details of these and many other interesting objects, he takes a view of the principal works on the science that have appeared in the course of the same epoch. Of these, the first noticed is Smith's Complete Treatise on Optics, which, notwithstanding its various translations into French, Dutch, German, &c. is described as very far from being a model of perfection or elegance. The other remaining works enumerated are those of Euler, of Courtivron, of Boscovich, and of Priestley, with the French and German translations of the same.

Article II. contains the algebraic determination of the foci of optic glasses, particularly by Halley, Ditton, Craige,

Guisnée, Carré, and Wolf.—And article III. describes the hypotheses relating to the apparent place of objects seen by reflexion or refraction; a question which yet remains undecided. We find here, conjointly introduced, the opinions of the ancients and the moderns on this point—of Alhazen, Vitellio, Tacquet, Aguilon, Barrow, Berkley, Smith, and Snell.—The fourth article discusses certain curious phænomena of direct optics or vision; such as the apparent approach or convergence of parallel rows or alleys; the apparent elevation of the horizon; the large apparent magnitude of the sun and moon near the horizon; an optic illusion which M. M., rejecting the well-known explication given by Dr. Smith, inclines to ascribe to a great conjectured distance, occasioned by the interposing objects.

In the fifth article is given the history of the invention of the achromatic telescope; a very important article, and treated at great length, the historian entering pretty fully into the disputes that have been agitated concerning this invention, upon the ideas of Newton, Euler, Dollond, Klingenstiern, Clairaut, d'Alembert, and many other authors, who have contributed to the perfection either of the theory or the practice of these telescopes.

In the sixth article we are presented with a discourse on the different perfections of telescopes, on glasses cemented together, and on the manner of polishing glasses. This, and the five following articles, are entirely by the editor Lalande, who here commences the method of placing, at the head of the article, its particular title or contents; which is certainly a convenience. In this article are described the effects of glasses cemented together, the modes of cementing them, and inclosing between them transparent liquids, or a coating of mastic, melted by the action of fire, whether by the method of abbé Rochon, or of others; which last are found useful in obviating the effects of the irregularities in the surfaces, and of the colours; but which are, at the same time, liable to the inconvenience of soon spoiling, and requiring to be repaired or renewed. A new method of polishing glasses is here also described, from the French artist Antheaulme.—In the seventh article, which is very important, Lalande gives a short history of the telescope, properly so called, or reflectors, from the time of Newton and Hadley, through the hands of the principal makers or improvers, as Bradley, Molineux, Hawkesbee, Passement, Short, and Herschel especially, of whose labours and discoveries in the heavens he presents a clear and particular account, and who, it is stated, has made two hundred telescopes of seven feet long, one hundred and fifty of ten feet, and eighty of twenty feet, besides his very large one of forty feet, and four feet opening: his greatest success in observing, however, has been by means of a seven-foot tube, which magnifies 2000 times. It is here stated, with re-

gard to France, that the first consul Bonaparte has promised the astronomers of that country two thousand weight of platina, for the purpose of making a telescope of thirty-six French feet long, which will probably surpass every thing that has been hitherto constructed.

The next article is devoted to microscopes, and particularly the solar microscope; in which the author does justice to the principal persons who have interested themselves in their improvement, as Euler, Truss, Delatorre, Baker, Dellebarre, Smith, Barker, Martin, Liberkun, Adams, &c.—The ninth article treats of micrometers, the heliometer, and the prismatic micrometer of the abbé Rochon, made of Iceland crystal, which is well known to be endued with the singular property of a double refraction.—The next article comprises various reflecting instruments, useful in astronomy and navigation, for discovering the longitude, &c.; such as octants, sextants, whole circles, and the astrometer of Rochon. The first idea of these reflecting instruments, it appears, was derived from Dr. Hooke in 1664 or 1665. Sir Isaac Newton also proposed such an instrument; and a Mr. Godfrey, of Philadelphia in America, made one before Hadley's, though this latter was executed without the knowledge of the former; while other persons, it should seem, have entertained similar intentions and projects. The celebrated astronomer Mayer, of Göttingen, proposed the like combination of reflecting glasses for a whole circle, which has been completed and perfected by M. Borda of Paris, and is much used by the French, and apparently to much advantage; since, by multiplying the observations of the same object on several parts of the circle, and taking a medium among them all, the errors, both of the divisions of the instrument and of the observation, will be reduced to little or nothing.

Article XI. treats on the physical cause of the refraction, and diffraction, or inflexion, of the rays of light; in discussing which, the principal authors introduced are Newton, Mairan, Clairaut, Grimaldi, Miraldi, &c.—And the next article contains an account of the writings on photometry, or measuring of light, with the difference of heat in the rays. This is a very curious and interesting paper, and is treated by Montucla with much perspicuity. Philosophers had hitherto considered light only in regard to the direction of its rays, and its faculty of exciting in our organs of vision the perception or view of objects. They have not till lately made any attempts to calculate its intensity, although the different degrees of it are the source and the cause of many of the phænomena in physics. The researches which have been made on this subject, since the commencement of the eighteenth century, have given birth to a new part of optics, to which Lambert gave this additional name of *photometry*, and which is indeed not one of their least interesting branches.

Several philosophers have since made attempts to measure the different degrees of light; yet their success was but small, and their conclusions inaccurate, till Bouguer undertook the subject. From his experiments some curious results were derived: he determined that the light of the moon is but about the 300,000th part of that of the sun; that the light of the moon would be three times as great, if all the parts of her face were as luminous as the brightest parts of it: that the light of a bougie, at the distance of seventeen inches, is only the 11,664th part of the sun's light: that the sun's heat, when he is $19^{\circ} 16'$ above the horizon, is but two-thirds of his heat at $66^{\circ} 11'$ elevation; owing to the greater quantity of the atmosphere his rays must traverse in the former case: that it is the logarithmic curve, and not the right line, as some have supposed, the ordinates of which serve to measure the decreasing intensity of light, in proportion as it traverses a greater thickness of transparent medium. Upon this subject the celebrated Euler has a considerable paper in the Berlin Memoirs, *anno* 1750, from some of the calculations in which, it results, that to us the light of the full moon is about the 374,000th part of that of the sun: that of Saturn, in his opposition, a million of times less than that of the moon: that of Jupiter, in opposition, 46,000 less than that of the moon, or about twenty-two times greater than that of Saturn: that of Mars, supposing the nature of contexture the same, ought to be 20,000 times less than that of the moon, or nearly double to that of Jupiter: and that of Venus, in similar circumstances, the 4,200th part of that of the moon. Lambert has also written largely and accurately on the same subject, and deduced tables of results; such as, that the light, in passing through a common glass lens, is weakened about one sixth or one seventh; and that, by reflexion from a glass mirror, at an angle of sixty degrees, it loses about one third. Lambert was also author of a work on *pyrometry*, or the measure of fire and heat. Dr. Smith moreover wrote on photometry, in his Optics; as well as several other authors, in different works. Lahire, by experiment, found that the rays of the moon, collected into a focus by a burning glass, produced no sensible heat: from which Michell concluded, that the moon reflects only the seventh part of the light which she receives from the sun. The heat of the solar rays has been the subject of various inquiries by different authors. M. Rochon made experiments on the several degrees of heat of the different coloured rays; and found that the heat of the violet rays is but the eighth part of that of the red.—Hartley attempted experiments on the force of rays of different colours; and Herschel very lately (*Philos. Trans.* 1800), on their force, both as to heat and light; who states that, by exposing the prismatic colours to a very sensible thermometer, he found the red rays

raised the thermometer $6\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, the green $3\frac{1}{4}$, and the violet two degrees, the red having the greatest effect in heating. On the other hand, by examining the force of the various prismatic colours for enlightening objects, Mr. H. found that the red have but little effect, the yellow and green the most, the blue equal to the red, the indigo much less than the blue, and the violet a still smaller power. He found in general, that those rays which have most light, have very little heat; that hence, in a burning glass, the focus of light is different from that of heat, the latter being placed farther from the lens than the former: that there are rays from the sun which are less refrangible than those which affect the sight, and which have a great power in heating, but not in illuminating: he endeavours to prove that the heating and colouring rays are quite different; and, in fact, obtained heat, where he was not able to perceive any light, even after having employed a burning lens or a concave reflector. He also observed that the loss of heat and of light, which the solar rays suffer in passing through different diaphanous bodies, is very variable; for instance, that a glass of a deep red colour intercepts nearly all the light, but suffers four tenths of the heat to pass through; and so reciprocally with respect to other coloured glasses, which give little heat and much light.

In article XII. M. Mayer specifies a variety of glasses that produce curious effects and deceptions: such as, the phantasmagory, and various other singular mirrors and burning glasses, both ancient and modern; photophores; chimney lamps; the panorama; phloscope; thermolampe; polemoscope; panscope; ocular harpsichord; phosphorus; and light of the sea: all of them being described and treated in a manner equally instructive and amusing, and rendering this article altogether one of the most entertaining in the volume. We are sorry that the length to which our account has already extended, will not admit of a particular statement of its contents.—Article XIV. treats of what the historian calls vices or irregularities in vision, arising from various causes; also on squinting, on accidental colours, and on the apparent place of an object: containing a number of very curious observations and reflections.—The next article is appropriated chiefly to the objections that have been made against Newton's theory and experiments on colours, and the defences that have been alternately advanced. The historian explains clearly the objects or points disputed; then states the substance of the objections; and lastly, the more philosophic experiments and arguments of his triumphant advocates, independently of many ingenious remarks of M. Montucla himself. We here find several curious dissertations on the nature and number of the colours; on a new series of colours

produced by transmission, similar to those which had been formed by reflected light. Among the replies to other opposers of Newton's theory, we here find due justice done to that miserable philosopher, and ferocious brute, Marat.—In the sixteenth, or last, article of this optical part of the work, M. Montucla enumerates the chief opinions on the manner in which light is propagated. He treats principally of those of Newton, and Euler. The hypothesis of the former is, that light consists of emanations, or particles of matter, emitted from the sun in all directions, with the inconceivable velocity of about twelve millions of miles in a minute, or two hundred thousand miles in a second of time, calculated from its reaching the earth from the solar disk in less than eight minutes: that of the latter, that light is only an effect produced by the vibrations in an interposed fluid. Against both opinions several strong objections are stated, and especially those of d'Alembert; but our author presumes not to give any decision of his own. The account of optics then concludes with a few words on perspective, and a notice on the contents of Dr. Priestley's History of Optics.

The remainder of this third volume is appropriated to the subject of mechanics, both in theory and practice, in two books. Mechanics comprehends two branches quite distinct from each other, theory and practice. The history begins with the first of these, which includes the principles and the calculations of the equilibrium, and the motion of solids and of fluids. The ensuing book treats of machinery, and constitutes that important branch of mechanics which chiefly relates to the affairs of social life. M. Lagrange, in his *Mécanique Analytique*, published in 1788, reduces all problems to general formulæ, the development of which gives all the equations necessary for the solution of each problem: he unites under one point of view the different principles found for facilitating the solution of questions in mechanics, for showing their connexion and dependence, and for judging of their justness and extent. Our historian offers, from the same author, the explanation of this branch of the science; than whom he could not follow a more sure guide, or more profound investigator.

The first article displays the elements of statics, or of equilibrium. The laws of statics are founded on general principles, which resolve themselves into three, viz. that of the equilibrium in the lever, that of the composition of motion, and that of the virtual velocity, which John Bernouilli rendered general in 1717. Archimedes, the only writer among the ancients who has left any theory of mechanics, has proved himself, in his two books *De Æquiponderantibus*, the author of the principle of the lever. The demonstration of Archimedes has been rendered more simple and general among the moderns, especially

by Galileo, Stevin, and Huygens; while some, as Lahire, Stevin, &c. have extended the principle of the lever to the other mechanical powers in general.

The second principle of equilibrium, or that of the composition of motion, is founded on this supposition, *viz.* that, if two forces act at once on a body in different directions, these two will be equal to one single force capable of impressing on the body the same motion as the two forces would produce when acting separately. But a body, made to move uniformly according to two different directions at once, necessarily runs through the diagonal of the parallelogram, the sides of which it would have run through separately by virtue of each of those two motions; whence it follows, that any two forces which act together on the same body, will be equivalent to one only, which is represented, in its quantity and its direction, by the diagonal of a parallelogram, the sides of which represent respectively the quantities and the directions of the two given forces; thus forming the principle of the composition of forces. The invention of this principle seems to have taken its rise from the mechanical dialogues of Galileo, though he might not be aware of its extent at the time; but was afterwards considered and applied generally in the writings of Descartes, Roberval, Merfenne, Wallis, Varignon, &c.

The third principle of statics, or that of the virtual velocities, consists in this fact, that two powers are in æquilibrium when they are in the inverse ratio of their virtual velocities, or the velocities with which they would begin to move on being put in motion, estimating those incipient velocities in the directions of those powers: a principle which is also ascribed to Galileo as its author, but which was soon afterwards adopted by Wallis, and employed in demonstrations introduced into his treatise on mechanics; after which period, the same postulate has been rendered general, for any number of forces whatever, by John Bernoulli. This principle, however, has since given place to that of Maupertuis, which he calls *the law of rest*: while other demonstrations and variations of it have been also advanced by Euler, Courtivron, and others.

M. Lagrange contends that the third principle, of the virtual velocities, comprises all the others, which are merely variations of it in different forms. He gives it in a general formula, which includes all the problems that can be proposed on the equilibrium of bodies; and offers new applications of it for any system of forces whatever, in his *Mécanique Analytique*.

Article II. is appropriated to the principles of dynamics, which is the science of accelerative or retardative forces, and of the various motions arising from them. This science is wholly due to the moderns; and it was Galileo who first laid its foundation, in his determination of the descent of heavy bodies and

the laws of projectiles. Huygens extended the science, by adding, to the theory of the acceleration of heavy bodies, those of the motion of pendulums and of centrifugal forces; and thus prepared the way for the grand discovery of universal gravitation by Newton, in whose hands mechanics became a science wholly new; while the invention of the infinitesimal calculus furnished mathematicians with the means of treating questions relative to moving forces in the most general and perfect manner. The several general principles of dynamics, here announced and discriminated, have been gradually and successively developed by those great masters, Galileo, Descartes, Huygens, Newton, Wallis, d'Alembert, Bernouilli, Euler, Lagrange, Prony, &c.

In the third article, M. Montucla treats of the conservation of what is called the living forces; which principle is this, *viz.* that, in the actions of all bodies on each other, whether by their shock when they are elastic, or are connected together by inflexible rods, or threads, or whether operating by universal gravitation, or by whatever other means they communicate motion, the sum of all the products (called *vires vivæ* or living forces) of each mass or body multiplied by the square of its velocity, however changing, is still preserved, or amounts to the same constant quantity. The derivation of this general theorem is given, and an account of the works in which its has been chiefly used, as those of the Bernouillis, d'Alembert, Lagrange, &c.—The ensuing article describes an additional principle, and upon which d'Alembert founded the solutions in his work on dynamics; a principle which had been also mentioned by Fontaine and Dan. Bernouilli, and has since been employed by other philosophers.

The fifth article describes the violent disputes which occurred in the latter part of the seventeenth century, concerning the designation of the expression, 'moving force or momentum.' It had been stated by Descartes, and has been ever since acquiesced in by all philosophers, that the motive or moving force of a body is duly expressed by the product of the mass or body multiplied by the velocity with which it moves; and that hence the force of the same body, in different cases of its motion, is directly proportional to the velocity of its motion. But, in the year 1686, Leibnitz published a paper in the *Leipscic Acts*, stating that the foregoing opinion was erroneous, and that the measure of the motive force was the product of the mass multiplied by the square of the velocity, or that the force is proportional to the square of the velocity. This new opinion was soon attacked by some philosophers, and defended by others; and the dispute became warmer and more general, till at length all the chief mathematicians in Europe were involved in the quarrel; most of the continental mathematicians defending

Leibnitz and his new opinion, while the English, and a few of the more respectable among those of the continent, stood up for the old doctrine, which in the end re-obtained the victory, and has continued to prevail to the present day, being now the general opinion of all nations. The historian, in a neat manner, states the arguments of the principal disputants on both sides, and concludes with his approbation of the decision in favour of the old doctrine.

The sixth article describes another principle in dynamics, which was also the subject of an additional quarrel among the philosophers of Europe, rendered the more remarkable by the circumstance, that the brightest geniuses and one of the greatest princes of his day entered the lists. This principle was proposed by Maupertuis, in 1744, to the Academy of Sciences, under the name of, *The principle of the least action*; and it is thus defined, viz. When several bodies, acting on each other, undergo a change in their motion, the change is always such, that the quantity of action, employed by nature to produce it, is the least that is possible; and this action has for its measure, according to Maupertuis, the continued product of the mass by the space and velocity; which product is to be a minimum, or the least possible. Kœnig, professor of mathematics at the Hague, objected to this discovery, representing it as of little value, and quoted moreover, in support of his assertion, an extract from a copy of a letter which he said had been written by Leibnitz, but whose original could never be produced. Several other mathematicians were discredited by objections to the law, and among others, the celebrated Voltaire, though he could not have any pretensions to such kind of learning, and only entered into the quarrel through dislike to Maupertuis, who was defended by many able mathematicians, and even by the king of Prussia himself, in a paper written with his own hand. The principle nevertheless was scarcely deserving of such lively and general interest among the philosophers of Europe, as most problems can be better performed without the use of it.

Article VII. treats of the curves called *tautochrones*, being those in every arc of which a heavy body will perform its vibrations always in equal times. It is well known that the common cycloid is a curve having that property in a nonresisting medium; but when the vibrating body is resisted by the medium, or by friction, or otherwise, then other curves are produced, which have the property in question; and it is this latter case which is the subject of the article, in which are particularly noticed the solutions of Newton, Jo. Bernouilli, Euler, Fontaine, d'Alembert, Lagrange, Necker, &c.—In the article ensuing, are considered the various solutions that have been given of the curious and difficult problem concerning the vibrations of a tense chord. The ancients knew very well that

the sound of a tense chord is excited by the vibrations of that chord; but it was not till the commencement of the eighteenth century that philosophers began to inquire into the nature and velocity of that motion, and the properties of the curve assumed by a vibrating chord. The first solution was given by Dr. Brook Taylor; and he was afterwards followed by the other great mathematicians, Bernouilli, d'Alembert, Euler, Lagrange, &c.

The ninth article treats of the ballistic curve and military projectiles, especially those made in a resisting medium, such as the atmosphere, and justly esteemed one of the most difficult problems in dynamics. It was Galileo who first treated of this curve; and, neglecting the resistance of the air, he found that a military projectile must describe a path in the form of a common parabola. Hence, such a projectile setting out with a given velocity and direction, it was easy to calculate its range and the time of its flight, as well as every other circumstance relating to it. In this determination, and in these principles, every philosopher and practitioner in artillery acquiesced, supposing the resistance of the air of little or no consequence, till near the middle of the eighteenth century, when the experiments and reasoning of Mr. Robins proved their extreme absurdity, and opened the way to the true theory and practice of ballistics. To such a degree did the errors extend by the old or parabolic theory, that he shewed that, according to it, some projectiles would appear to range ten times, or twenty times, or even thirty times, beyond what it is found by experience they really and actually do. This discovery of Robins's gave rise to a new theory of ballistics, which was afterwards treated of by some of the greatest mathematicians; as, Euler, Bernouilli, Herman, Taylor, Lambert, Broda, &c. yet without bringing the science to any degree of practical utility.

In article X. the history treats of *hydrodynamics*, or the equilibrium and motion of fluids, a science which has chiefly arisen in the 18th century, because the old analysis was insufficient for the solution of such problems. These problems chiefly respect the motion of water through small holes in the bottom of vessels, but extend to water in pipes and canals, &c. &c. It was Torricelli who first gave the true law for the issuing of water through small holes, *viz.* that its velocity is proportional to the square root of the height of the upper surface above the orifice, or that the velocity is equal to that due to a heavy body in falling from the same height. This science was also treated of, and improved, by most of the principal mathematicians of the day, as Pascal, Mariotte, Newton, Varignon, Polæni, Frontini, Bernouilli, Maclaurin, d'Alembert, Clairaut, Lagrange, Bossu, Prony, &c. In this enumeration of authors, it is re-

markable that the history has not noticed the labours of Buat, who, in two volumes octavo, offers more experiments on this subject than perhaps any of the other authors.

The eleventh article is devoted to the course and motion of rivers, floods, canals, aqueducts, &c. one of the most important branches of this science, especially in some countries. For, if those currents of water which ought to carry fertility into the countries they irrigate, be a general benefit of nature, how often do they overspread the earth with ravage and desolation! Hence the art of enchaining them, as it were, is become necessary in countries exposed to such devastations. This part of hydraulics has taken its rise, and has been chiefly cultivated, in Italy, where the ravages of the Po and other rivers have created the science: and the chief artists, who in this country have been numerous and highly respectable, together with their works, and some foreign writers, are here particularly described and appreciated; such as Ximenes, Castelli, Guglielmini, Grandi, Lecchi, Frisi, Regi, Polæni, Lorgnà, Fontana, Fantoni, Bossu, Belidor, &c. and Buat, whom we expected to have found in the former article.—The next, and last, article of this theoretic part of hydraulics is employed on the motion of the waves, and the oscillations of fluids. This subject was first treated by Newton, in his Principia; besides whom, there are only two other authors mentioned in the present work, *viz.* Flaugerges and Lagrange. As to the resistance of fluids, it is referred to the chapter on Navigation, in the 4th volume; but there is subjoined in this volume the history of the practical part of mechanics.

The fourth, and last, book of the volume before us is entirely employed on the practice of mechanics, or machinery, and is wholly the composition of the editor Lalande. It is divided into fifteen articles, of which we can give little more than the titles, on account of the length to which our analysis has been already extended, although each of them is well deserving of a particular and minute account. The method employed by this historian is that of Montucla; he describes the particulars of every part of each subject, distinguishing every author, and the peculiarities of his manner.

The first article is on the physical powers of man and beast, exemplified in their different positions and modes of action, laden or unladen, carrying, drawing, pushing, lifting, bearing, &c.—The second article is on friction in machines. Here, according to his practice in most cases, Lalande cites chiefly the works of the French authors. He might, in this article, very well have referred to several English writers, of whom he only mentions Desaguliers.—Article III. treats on the rigidity of cords and ropes, with the resistance it produces in machines.—The fourth article treats of the famous water-machine of Marly,

the largest in the world, and of other machines moved by the force of water acting on wheels; with the remarks of a number of celebrated French engineers. The machine of Marly was built between the years 1676 and 1682, to convey the waters of the Seine to the palace of Marly; it is said to have cost then seven millions of livres, equivalent to fourteen millions of the present time, or near six hundred thousand pounds sterling. But no expense was sufficient to satisfy the taste and the magnificence of Louis XIV. He would not even suffer any remonstrances to be made to him on such occasions. Colbert represented to him the enormity of the expenses of the palace of Versailles; the king replied, 'You know my intentions; I know the state of my affairs; I give you orders, and you execute; which is all that I require of you. You must serve me in the manner I desire, and believe that I do every thing for the best.'—Article V. treats of the steam-engine; with a neat history of its invention and improvements, by Worcester, Savery, Newcomen, Watt, Betancour, &c. Article VI. describes some other new machines, chiefly of French invention, for raising water; particularly a kind of sucking machine by M. Trouville, acting by a rarefaction of the air; the hydraulic ram of Montgolfier, acting by repeated and perpetual strokes or impulses; and the water-rope or rope-pump of M. Vera, invented in 1781.—The seventh article treats of water-mills, wind-mills, hand-mills, and thrashing-machines. Article VIII. contains an account of a variety of other machines, lately invented, for augmenting forces of divers kinds; for moving boats; the aërostatic machines of Montgolfier and others, with a short history; in the conclusion of which it is stated that the conquest of Belgium by the French, in 1793, was owing, in a great measure, to the use of such machinery: 'In the campaign of that year,' says Lalande, 'twenty-eight ascensions were made in that country, with the aërostat; and the 7th Messidor, at the battle of Fleurus, general Moreau was during two hours up in a balloon, observing the motions of the enemy's army: during this time he sent two letters down to general Jourdan the commander, from the height of two hundred toises; and these letters produced the battle, which led, in its consequences, to the conquest of all Belgium.' Then follows an account of the diving boats of Fulton. In article IX. are contained accounts of various machines used in manufactures, such as for knitting, spinning, weaving, printing, &c.

Article X. contains a short history of clocks and clock-work, with an account of the principal works and artists in that line; also of curious and secret locks. We here find clocks with wheels mentioned in 1120, though they were made probably much earlier. But the first clock which occurs in history, and which appears to have been constructed on the principle of the

present day, is that of our countryman Richard Wallingfort, abbot of St. Alban's, who lived in 1326. After that time the history notices several others in succession, and particularly certain curious large church or town clocks, of a very compound structure: but we do not find when, or on what occasion, the use of the pendulum was annexed to them. We have here also accounts of various complex machines, exhibiting the planetary or celestial motions.—Article XI. gives an account of turnery, and of turning machines.—Article XII. of the curious automats of Vaucauson and other artists; such as the flute-player; the duck, which ate, drank, and digested; the chess-player, &c. &c.—Article XIII. contains the history of that chimæra, the perpetual motion, and the attempts made to effect it, with the reasonings of philosophers on its impossibility.—Article XIV. exhibits an account of some of the most celebrated mechanists, who have distinguished themselves by the invention and construction of a variety of curious machines; as Rennequire, the maker of the water-machine at Marly; Vaucauson, the automaton-framer; Zabaglia, at Rome; Ferracini, at Padua; and many others, the account of whose performances would be very curious, if we had space for inserting it.—The XVth or last article contains a catalogue of several repositories and collections of machines, and a great number of authors and books that treat of machines, which are chiefly in the French, Italian, German or Dutch languages; two articles only being in the English, viz. Baily's collection of the instruments of the Society of Arts, and Labelye's account of the foundations of Westminster bridge.

Thus concludes the third volume of this curious and elaborate history. The particulars of the remaining volume must be deferred till our next Appendix.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. II. *De Origine et Usu Obeliscorum, &c.*

On the Origin and Use of Obelisks. By George Zoega. (*Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 508.*)

WE return with pleasure to this interesting work; and, in resuming the funeral rites of the Egyptians, pass from their sepulchres to their coffins. These for the most part were of sycamore, and on their lids presented the figure of the deceased deposited within, after having been embalmed and swathed. In general, the face only was expressed; but sometimes the arms and hands, with their appendages. Those containing the remains of men, exhibited a small oblong beard. All were generally whitened; often decorated with paintings, and sometimes

with gold. Other integuments for the dead were formed of linen bandages glued together; and frequently the bodies of distinguished personages were deposited in stone excavated in a proper form to receive them. Of this kind are those lately brought from Egypt, and now in the front court of the British Museum—where that in which the remains of Alexander were deposited is on many accounts intitled to attention *.

The shorter notices on this section refer to particular monuments in various collections, and incidental discussions suggested by the subject.

Monuments reared as memorials of the dead form the next topic of inquiry. The author takes a retrospect toward those of different nations in the earliest ages, and notices such as have been particularly distinguished, down to the sepulchre of Adrian.

The large tumuli and stones in Scotland and Scania, with the Mausoleum erected by Artemisia, and the sepulchre of Porfenna, are each distinctly considered.

These lead to observations on other kinds of funereal monuments, such as stones fixed in the earth, or the more 'frail memorial' of wood 'erected nigh;' trees planted on, or arms and other implements suspended over, places of interment. The oblong stones in the north of Europe, whether rough, or polished and shaped like triliteral obelisks, arrest the author's attention, those especially with sculptured figures and Runic inscriptions; some in Scotland, of which one is not less than twenty-three feet high, with many remarkable sculptures; the monuments of the Greeks in honour of the dead; the goals for their games; the forms of pillars on their painted vases; sepulchres with pillars and inscriptions erected by their country for public benefactors; inscriptions of other kinds, and the lofty columns that gradually proceeded from them; the columns of Trajan and the Antonines; the sepulchral obelisk at Nicæa; the inscribed cippi of the Greeks and Romans; urns and sarcophagi with inscriptions, and sarcophagi placed in the open air, are each subjects of remark; as are the sculptured resemblances of the dead, which Mr. Zoega thinks more ancient than epitaphs. Hence, after pointing out the figures on the sepulchre of Choerætas, as the most ancient seen by Pausanias, he adverts to those of Thyestes, Midas, and Sardanapalus, with the usual subjects of sculpture;—the monuments of Archimedes, Leonidas, Epaminondas, Diogenes, Isocrates;—the face of the dead represented on a pillar, and the whole figure substituted for it.

Under this head, notes are added on incidental and correlative subjects, which at once display research and erudition.

* Of this, and the other antiquities taken from the French, we are glad to learn that most faithful representations will shortly be published, from the *fac-similes* of Mr. *Alexander*.

The third class of these monuments comprehends structures and inclosures in memory of the dead. Commencing with the most simple memorials, our author traces them down to tutelary shrines, which, from the symbols of the gods upon them, suggested the idea of burying in temples. From the sepulchre of Cyrus, Mr. Zoega takes occasion to mention, that, though sepulchral edifices seldom occur among the Greeks, they were nevertheless of ancient use; whence he proceeds to instance those of Alcmaeon, Meleager, Inus, Æacus, and others; and adds examples of illustrious persons of both sexes who were buried in the temples of the gods. Edifices in sepulchres consecrated to the infernal deities were often reared, and especially to that divinity of whom the deceased was a votary. The popular belief is stated, that representations of the dead in the form of the god had a peculiar effect. The sepulchral structures of the Romans, with all their appendages and magnificence, are the last points considered under this division.

The principal notes respect the sepulchre of Nitocris over the gate of Babylon; the heroon of Epideta the Spartan, and private apotheosis; the sepulchre of Trimalchio; and those in the Ceramicus.

Returning to the Egyptians, Mr. Zoega observes of them that they neither used tumuli of earth, nor sepulchral pillars; and also, that Diodorus is not entitled to credit when he speaks of pillars on the sepulchres of Isis and Osiris beyond the limits of Egypt. In Egypt, sarcophagi, representing the features of the dead, stood in each family for domestic monuments; and our author maintains that hieroglyphic figures and characters on sarcophagi have no reference to the history of the deceased, but respect the national religion. An altar of granite, with figures of this kind, in the Borgian museum, is here particularly noticed.

The public monuments of the Egyptians of a sepulchral kind, hitherto remarked, are either the surfaces of rocks which have been chiseled, small shrines, temples, or else pyramids. Their sepultures were often in the sides of mountains, or in vaults concealed in the sands, that soil adapted to plantation, or the germination of seeds, might not be defiled by any person deceased. The surfaces of rocks hewn, together with epistyles, sculptured figures, and hieroglyphic inscriptions, are often found in various parts of Egypt. A remarkable sculpture presents itself on a rock of mount Esselsele, another in mount Tuna, and a picture on the surface of a rock in the confines of Savadi.

A note here follows on the sculptured rocks at Persepolis, Naxirustan, and in other parts of Asia and Europe.

After a digression, which, we must confess, however curious the information it contains, is rather wide of the subject of obelisks, Mr. Zoega reverts to the pyramids of Egypt. These, he says, chiefly occur in that part of the country where subter-

aneous vaults in the sandy plains were substituted for sepulchres, which, to render them inaccessible, had massy edifices erected over their entrances. Many remains of such are still visible near Busris and Saccara, generally of a square form, and each including a well. These pyramids (for such is their shape when carried to a considerable height) are now so well known to our readers from late publications, that it would be needless to describe them more particularly in this place. Mr. Zoega supposes them in the first instance to have gradually obtained their vast height from small exemplars; and that colossal figures were placed on their tops. He conceives them also to have been inscribed with hieroglyphics, though none be now visible. Some, he asserts, had porticoes built against them, instead of vestibules. Invariable tradition amongst the Egyptians asserts them to have been sepulchres; and the name of pyramids is thought by our author to confirm the report.

The particulars in the notes of this section, though curious, we pass over, for the reason just above given; as we do the section that follows, which consists of accounts collected from travelers, with the author's remarks upon them.

Quitting this topic, Mr. Zoega observes that it was anciently the custom amongst persons of high rank to build chapels near their houses, to serve them as sepulchres; and under this head he adverts to a passage in Herodotus, concerning a daughter of king Mycerinus, buried within the precinct of the palace in an ox of wood, which was elevated annually to salute the sun—supposing the tradition erroneous, and that, instead of a nameless young woman, Isis was intended. Other instances are adduced of royal funerals in temples; and, amongst the citations from Strabo and Herodotus, we meet with a passage from the latter relative to ancient kings buried with the sacred crocodiles in the Labyrinth, which was the temple of the nation at large. Hence it is inferred, that sometimes one and the same building was either a sepulchre or temple; as in the instance of the Osymandium, which others style Memnonium, the most magnificent of all monuments.

The notes under this section relate to the burying of Alexander and the Ptolemies in the royal palaces; the sepulchres of the Alexandrians in gardens; the cenotaph of Jannes and Jambres, and the proof that there was but one Labyrinth in Egypt.

In chapter II. our author enters on the very interesting inquiry into the use and origin of letters in Egypt; and, after having briefly touched on the incongruous opinions of the learned, cites Clemens Alexandrinus, who assigns to the ancient Egyptians three sorts of characters; of which two, the vulgar and sacerdotal, were alphabetic; the third hieroglyphic: whilst Herodotus and Diodorus mention two alone. To elucidate the question, authorities are brought from various writers,

whence it is deduced, that on stones hieroglyphics only were employed; but in books, alphabetic characters. From Plato it is inferred that these alphabetic characters were peculiar to the Egyptians, and invented by one of themselves. Their vulgar writing was chiefly used in epistles, the sacerdotal in books; but it appears from Apuleius that books were also written in hieroglyphics. Apuleius speaks of a double species of letters used in their books of ritual, the hieroglyphic and sacerdotal alphabet. Each alphabet had its stated number and order of elements; but the sacerdotal was the more elegant, and varied by combinations and accents. From Plutarch, the number is twenty-five; of which the first was called, from its figure, the *ibis*: these however were all consonants. Mr. Zoega observes, that the passage of Demetrius Phalereus on the seven vowels is to be understood as referring to the modulation of song, and not to letters. From Aristides of Canopus, it is inferred that the Coptic characters were not introduced till the third century of the vulgar æra.

The notes of this section are peculiarly interesting.

The ensuing commences with an observation that only one mode of hieroglyphic writing hath been found, which is that whose hieroglyphic symbols, like literary characters, are arranged in series or verses, and thus express the order of their archetypal ideas. They differ from Chinese characters, which, instead of being representative, are mere arbitrary forms, and from the Mexican pictures, which have no such order or arrangement. It is well observed, that the Egyptian figures, whether engraved or painted, which from their action or disposition express either fable or allegory, are improperly confounded with hieroglyphic inscriptions. Hieroglyphic symbols are here distributed into five classes, and examples adduced under each; and it is laid down as a universal principle, that hieroglyphics may be equally styled language and writing; for, that the figures to be expressed are neither restricted to numbers nor to words, but are common to all characters and every idiom. As to what hath been termed abbreviated or cursive hieroglyphics, they are to be regarded but as the rude forms of more perfect characters. Under this head a passage from Plutarch is cited relative to the inscription found on the sepulchre of Alcmenes. Mr. Zoega very properly proceeds to remark that a greater or less degree of elegance in hieroglyphics is no characteristic of their date; and that, though they were chiefly used on stone, they occur also upon whatever other substance could be cut or written upon. After the invention of alphabetic writing, hieroglyphics, though originally of universal use, were chiefly restricted to sacred monuments. Various subjects, to which hieroglyphics have been applied, are collected from ancient authors; and that the knowledge of hieroglyphics was

chiefly confined to the priests, is understood not to have arisen from any policy in locking up their import, but as proceeding solely from the difficulty of understanding them. The philosophy of symbols amongst the Egyptians, which some have confounded with hieroglyphic writing, is considered and illustrated from Plotinus, Clemens, and Philo. The notes contain explanations of various hieroglyphics collected and applied from ancient writers.

Our author begins his next section with asserting that painting, whether taken in a larger or more confined sense, is of the highest antiquity among the Egyptians. The fables of the gods, the exploits of illustrious men, rites, customs, public institutions, as is shown from examples, were frequently expressed by them both in sculpture and in colours. From monuments of this kind, with the symbols and tropes they exhibit, Mr. Zoega deduces hieroglyphic writing, which led, in his opinion, to the arrangement of figures in the manner of letters, and to the delineation of a series of figures in the successionary order of ideas. At what precise period, however, this took place, there is no document existing to determine. The absolute invention of letters was ascribed by them to Thoth, or Hermes, whom our author takes for the genius of the human mind; but whom we, for reasons too copious to be here inserted, ascribe ultimately to Moses. The commencement of hieroglyphics is referred by him to the time when the Egyptians and Ethiopians were one people. Their introduction he considers to have been gradual, and the phonetic notes to have been of a later date. Their golden age he supposes to have been that of Sesostris, when men of wisdom were in the highest repute. After the form of government was changed under Psammetichus, they began to run into fanciful excesses, and were embarrassed by mysterious and ænigmatic allusions. Proofs of this assertion are brought from a temple in Cous, and a shrine in the British Museum. The Bembine table is here introduced. Having remarked that the sacerdotal order greatly declined under the Lagidæ, and was almost extinct under the Romans—an opinion, however, which is opposed by the zodiac of Dendera—Mr. Zoega notices their revival in the second century after the subjugation of Egypt by the Roman arms; and instances monuments inscribed with hieroglyphics, not in Italy only, but in Rome itself. The interpreters of Egyptian antiquities which flourished under the Romans are then considered; the opposition of Severus is believed by our author to have but little effect upon them; the new school of Platonists are represented as diligent inquirers into their origin and design; and, even in the time of Theodosius, Mr. Zoega traces several who were professedly illustrators of hieroglyphics. As the gnostics, chemists, astrologers, and magi, affected their use, the Arabians be-

came acquainted with them; and we cannot but express our earnest wish, that the Arabic key to them, lately brought from Egypt by Mr. Hammer, may be soon presented to the world, with his remarks, by the learned gentleman to whom it was committed. Mr. Zoega has traced out six epochs of hieroglyphic writing:—of these, the first embraces the period before the invention of alphabetic characters—thence to the time of Psammetichus;—from his time to the foundation of Alexandria—thence to the taking of Egypt by the Romans;—from that period to the third century of the vulgar æra—and thence to the emperor Theodosius.

On the present section the notes are particularly interesting; and the transition from it to the alphabetic writing of the Egyptians, which introduces the next, is obvious.

To the Egyptians our author refers the origin of alphabetic writing; and deduces from them its communication to other nations, from the improbability that such an invention should have occurred to more than one people; and the consideration, that all the nations who first used alphabetic writing occupied an undivided continent. No individual is considered as the inventor; but that, slowly and gradually, sentences were separated into words, words into syllables, and syllables into their component sounds; so that words stood for sentences, thence syllables for words, and letters for simple sounds. To this hypothesis there are, in our judgement, many and insurmountable objections, the discussion of which would far exceed the limits of a Review, notwithstanding what Mr. Zoega proceeds to advance, that there is no arriving at syllabic writing by the use of phonetic signs, but through the medium of hieroglyphics, which were known solely to the Egyptians. This he explains from the supposition that things to be expressed by similar sounds were originally denoted by one and the same; but that afterward it occurred to the sacred scribe to separate those phonetic signs, and so to apply these divisions, that words and syllables might hence be enunciated. The next step, he takes for granted, was to separate the phonetic signs from the forms of objects, whence of their own accord the system of syllabic writing would follow; which whilst cultivated by these scribes, who would study to distinguish with accuracy the component syllables of the language, the elements, of which these syllables consisted, would present themselves, and exhibit the first rudiments of elementary writing. At length the simple elements being separated, their number would be defined, and their respective powers fixed. The passages in Plato which refer to Theuth as the inventor of letters are next adduced, and arguments offered to show that writing was more ancient than Moses.—To these we could add others of the same import; but, notwithstanding we admit the fact, there still appear satisfactory reasons

to suppose, that, under the name of Hermes or Thoth, the invention of alphabetic writing was referred by the Egyptians to him. Writing thus invented, the hieratic method, for the sake of elegance and mystery, was superadded. Authorities follow from the ancients to show that the alphabet originated in Egypt; such passages also are brought as attribute this origin to the Phœnicians; and the letters introduced from Phœnicia into Greece by Cadmus are affirmed to have been the only ground for the tradition that Cadmus had first carried letters into Greece.

The chief notes on this section are occupied by the principal topics of investigation, which are obviously connected with it, and evince to much advantage the author's researches.

Under this head, the last section adverts to the opinions of modern writers on the foregoing topic; particularly those of Warburton, De Guignes, Gebelin, D'Origny, and Tychsen; and concludes with examining the secession of Egyptian soldiers into Ethiopia in the reign of Psammeticus.

The notes relate to the traces of elementary characters which are instanced by ancient writers, and contain passages from Herodotus and Diodorus on the Automoli and Axuma.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. III.—*Mémoires de l'Institut National des Sciences et des Arts.*

Memoirs of the National Institute of Sciences and Arts. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 527.)

OUR last notice of the labours of the class of Moral and Political Sciences extended to vol. III. Memoir XII. We shall proceed in the order in which the different communications occur.

'XIII. Memoir on the Constitution of the Spartan Republic. By M. P. C. Levesque.'—The Lacedæmonians never wrote; and we are obliged, therefore, in examining their political regulations, to have recourse to the accounts of foreigners. Plato has entered, with some degree of detail, into their constitution; but M. Levesque does not give implicit credit to the statements of the Athenian philosopher. Plato had beheld in his own country the evil effects which result from ochlocracy, or democracy carried to its extreme; and hence, observes our essayist, fell in love with aristocracy (which was the form of the Spartan government) from the propensity by which mankind are naturally impelled to pass from one extreme to another: disgusted with the first democratic republic of Greece, he was insensibly seduced into a commendation of the first aristocratic republic. Xenophon was banished from Athens; and in his

exile he took refuge at Sparta. Xenophon also has written in favour of the same government; but our author thinks his motives are even more obvious and partial than those of Plato. Xenophon was followed by Plutarch, but at a distance of upwards of three centuries after the destruction of the republic by the tyrant Nabis:—he cannot therefore be supposed, like the two prior writers, to have been personally interested in his description. But Plutarch is conceived by our author to have possessed more of the character of a modern courtier than has hitherto been attributed to him; to have been favourable to monarchic governments when he spoke of kings; to pure democracy when he addressed himself to a people whose government was democratic; and to the Lacedæmonian aristocracy when he wrote of the Lacedæmonians. The political constitution of Sparta, properly so called, was in a high degree gross and barbarous. Lycurgus, perhaps, did all he could; but he had to work upon stubborn and untoward materials. Yet M. Levesque seems to carry his resentment against this republic beyond all due bounds; and, in the violence of his abhorrence, not to allow it the virtues of which it was actually possessed. The country of Laconia he supposes to have been divided into three classes. When the Dorians first introduced the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus, they instantly became divided into two factions—of which the faction that prevailed instituted a system of equality among their own class, and assumed the distinctive name of Spartans to themselves; while it obliged the faction which was subjugated to establish itself in the environs of the metropolis, and to become in every respect slaves to the conquerors. This submissive party was discriminated by the denomination of Laconians; and, while a small portion only of the coarser and less productive lands was allotted to these latter, their superiors rioted in the enjoyment of a very large tract of the richest and most select territory which appertained to the general use of the republic. Yet the slavery sustained by the Laconians bore no comparison in point of severity with that afterwards endured by the inhabitants of Helos, upon their captivity and the destruction of their city. The Lacedæmonians therefore, are divided by our memoirist, into three classes:—the Spartans proper, who were a sort of noblesse; the Laconians, or great body of the people, not admitted to the privileges of legislation, or even of civil distinctions, and who were consequently a kind of servants to the former; and the Helots, with whom all future captives were united, who were in every sense of the word slaves.

Our author believes, in opposition to general testimony, that the Spartan men were rich and covetous, and the Spartan women excessive cowards. He traces, or rather attempts to trace, an anachronism in the histories which attribute to Lycurgus the

suppression of all coin but that of copper—contending, from the Chronicon of Paros, that even silver coin, which preceded that of gold, was not in use till upwards of a century after the æra of that legislator, having been first introduced by the order of Phido, in the island of Ægina, in the year 895 before Christ.—The Spartans, he admits, had no public treasury; and, in this respect, might be considered as poor, when put in comparison with the Athenians, who had a prodigious exchequer:—but he maintains that individually they were enormously rich; their diet, clothing, and habitation, being extremely simple and inexpensive; and the landed estates belonging to every citizen very ample and highly productive. They at length declined from their own paucity of population—sedulously prohibiting strangers from settling in their territories—diminishing their numbers by incessant wars, and preventing a proportionate augmentation by a promiscuous intercourse of the sexes. They were, in the opinion of M. Levesque, a proud, cruel, and covetous people—totally devoid of political happiness, and whose courage consisted rather in haughtiness and temerity than in real bravery and magnanimous valour.

‘XIV. On the ancient Legislation of France, comprising the Salique Law, the Law of the Visigoths, and the Law of the Burgundians. By M. Legrand d’Aussy.’

Gaul, after having long submitted to the Roman yoke, was invaded, in the course of the fifth century of the Christian æra, and nearly at the same period of time, by three distinct and barbarous nations, the Visigoths, the Burgundians, and the Franks. Each entered at different points of the country; imposed, on the respective territory it conquered, a new and more degrading slavery than any to which it had antecedently submitted; compelled it to adopt a new system of manners; and introduced a new constitution, which was in every instance drawn up in the Roman language. Of what these constitutions consisted, we know however but very little, and especially with respect to the legal codes of the Burgundians and the Visigoths. That of the Burgundians is reported to have been so severe, that Gundebad was obliged to revise it, to prevent a general insurrection. Of the *lex Gundobada* several copies are still in existence; but the original Burgundian law has totally perished. In like manner, all that remains of the constitution of the Visigoths is a bulky series of revisions and corrections by successive monarchs, while the original code has entirely disappeared; and almost every thing that relates to it is conjecture. The primary law of the Salique Franks is little better understood. It was at first published under the title of *Pactus legis Salicæ*, at a period prior to the spread of Christianity among this people; but it was afterwards so much revised, corrected, and augmented by Clovis, Childebert, Chlotaris, and Dagobert, and eventually by Charle-

magne, that but very little of the original spirit and substance may be supposed to have survived such repeated repairs and embellishments. The few fragments, however, that remain from any of these separate institutions, or may be worth noticing, M. Legrand has here collected, and animadverted upon. That of the Visigoths seems to have possessed the longest existence: their union with the Franks did not take place till the æra of Pepin. 'At length,' concludes our memoirist, 'a new order of things changed every circumstance that related to the three nations. The imbecillity or incapacity of the monarch encouraged the usurpations of the chiefs. The feudal system was produced, and its new jurisprudence totally annulled that of the three codes. Insensibly all of them fell into disuse. Finally, towards the commencement of the third dynasty, they sunk into oblivion; and nothing was known in France beyond Roman rights and customs.'

'XV. On the Position of certain Places and Rivers within the Limits of Argolis, in the South of Peloponnesus. By M. Mentelle.'—In their respective charts of the Peloponnesus, d'Anville and Delisle are well known to have differed in a variety of points, and particularly in their position of Mycenæ, the former having placed it to the north-east of Argos, and the latter to the south-west. M. Mentelle endeavours, and with much laudable diffidence, to correct the errors of both these established chartists; for, in their maps of ancient Greece, he detects errors in each of them, though in the position of Mycenæ he entirely, and we believe justly, coincides with d'Anville. Delisle, indeed, appears to have misunderstood Strabo, while he obviously designed from his text. Temenium, the Lernæan lake, Heræum, and Mycenæ, are, in reality, only known in a geographic view by their relative proximity to each other; and hence it is not to be wondered at that we should meet with occasional differences of site in the most accurate and industrious geographers. Barthélemy, in his 'Travels of the younger Anacharsis,' for the most part coincides with d'Anville and M. Mentelle. A neat chart is subfixed, illustrative of the subject in dispute.

'XVI. On the Kind of Questions whose Solution is accurately obtained by the Science of Political Economy. By M. Véron-Fortbonnais, Associate-Member.'—The class of Political Economy of the National Institute publicly proposed the following question about three years since: 'Is it advantageous to a republic to borrow, and at what rate of interest?' M. Micoud-Domons, administrator of Mont-de-Piété, replied to this inquiry by two letters; in the former of which he discusses the general system of paper credit, and the administration of finances; and in the latter, after some observations on the moral powers of governments, enters more minutely upon the question.

immediately proposed. The letters of M. Micoud-Domons became highly popular, and were supposed to have been written with uncommon ability; but, in his consideration of this important question itself, he hesitated not to declare, that, if examined with much logical precision, it was altogether insoluble. 'The question,' said he, 'must be idle, if taken in an absolute sense; and, if considered in relation to existing circumstances, to treat it in a satisfactory manner, would be to form as many hypotheses as the variations of those circumstances themselves upon which the solution depends: and these may be infinite.'—Our present memoirist conceives, however, that an inquiry which has completely baffled the powers of M. Micoud may receive at least some portion of irradiation from his own efforts. All his observations appear to us, nevertheless, hypothetic and gratuitous; and the administration of the keen-sighted Colbert is not likely to be renewed by any of the remarks of the present financier.

'XVII. Dissertation on some Questions of Ideology; containing additional Proofs that it is from the Sensation of Resistance we derive a Knowledge of Bodies; and that, anterior to such Knowledge, no Act of the Judgement can take place, from an Inability to discriminate our simultaneous Perceptions from each other. By M. Destutt Tracy.'

'XVIII. Dissertation on Existence, and on the Hypotheses of Mallebranche and Berkeley relative to that Subject. By the same.'—In our Appendix to vol. xxxii. p. 527, New Arrang. we entered at some length into M. Destutt's 'Hypothesis on Ideology, or the Faculty of Thinking;—an hypothesis whose foundation was laid by Locke, and much of whose superstructure was erected by Condillac. In the first of the two memoirs now before us, M. Destutt traces the different progressive steps of the French metaphysician toward the ultimate completion of his system, from his *Essay on the Origin of Human Understanding* in 1746, to the publication of his *Treatise on Sensations* in 1756; and thence to his more matured ideas upon the same subject, as communicated a short time anterior to his death, which occurred in 1780. In the course of this survey, M. Destutt notices the gradual approximation of Condillac toward his own hypothesis, by a more precise adherence, as he pretends, to the principles he first established; and conceives, that, in the few points in which they even at last differed, the difference was chiefly, if not entirely, owing to an unnecessary and illogical departure from these radical postulates. For ourselves, we think there is an essential difference in many instances, not only between their conclusions, but their primary and elementary positions; and that no length of time, or latitude of interpretation, could entirely have converted the author of *The Treatise on Sensations* to the theory of ideology as maintained in all its branches.

by the present writer. But it is unnecessary for us to resume the subject: we have already examined the question, and adventured to deliver our opinion upon it.

The second of the two dissertations before us is so nearly connected with the first, that we have purposely united them. The precise difference between the theories, or, if our readers please, the metaphysic dreams, of Mallebranche and Berkeley, is not very generally known—though every reader is apprised that they were spiritualists. The former, by a long course of mental abstraction, and deep research into the rêveries of Platonism concerning the intellectual world, which was pretended to be the only reality and archetype of the sensible world, brought himself at length to believe that there is nothing capable of proof but pure *spirit*;—that we have no positive knowledge of *body*, and should have no certainty of its existence, had it not been communicated to us by Moses in his history of the creation: that we only perceive and see by a species of *instinct*—which is nevertheless a doubtful source of information;—that, whenever at length we attain positive truth, it is always God, or the thought of God, that we perceive;—and that hence, in literal conformity with the Scriptures, it is ‘in God we live, and move, and have our being.’ These are the chief doctrines which are contained in his volume, entitled a ‘Search after Truth,’ and are principally to be found in the fifth book of this work.

Berkeley not only advanced thus far in the theory of spiritualism, but pressed the theory itself much further; and maintained, that, notwithstanding every degree of deference was to be paid to the Mosaic narrative, this narrative itself, when fairly interpreted, did not prove, or even suppose, the existence of body: consequently he resigned himself with a greater degree of cordiality to the creed, that bodies do not exist; and attempted to demonstrate, that it is impossible they should exist otherwise than in the thought of a spirit, and more especially of the infinite spirit.

The system of M. Destutt is, on the contrary, altogether a system of materialism; and the arguments and observations of these spiritual philosophers having been urged against him, he now finds that he has not *begun* at the *beginning*; and that, instead of taking it for granted that a sensible world and that sensible objects actually exist around him, he is called upon to demonstrate the existence of external relations, and to decide whether even his own body be any thing or nothing? The whole opposition to his system, our author thinks, turns upon a perpetual equivocal, an uninterrupted confusion between the impression which a sensitive being receives, and which in such being we denominate sensation,—and the quality which resides, or is able to reside, in another being who is the cause of such sensation. This subject it is the object of M. Destutt to illu-

minate; and we will at least allow him the merit of patient and elaborate investigation, although we can by no means in every instance approve of his reasoning.

‘XIX. Reflexions on Projects of Pafigraphy. By the Same.’

—This memoir is designed as a kind of appendix to a prize essay of M. Degerando, written in answer to a question proposed by the National Institute—‘to determine what is the influence of signs on ideas?’ and afterwards very considerably enlarged, and extended to four volumes in octavo, and noticed, at some length, by ourselves in our Appendix to vol. xxx. New Arrangement, p. 481. Our author endeavours in the present paper to define, with additional accuracy, the meaning of the terms *tongues, languages, writings, hieroglyphics*: and the result of his observations is, that every system of signs immediately expressing our ideas is a real language, whether those signs be addressed to the ear, the eye, or the touch: that writing is not a system of signs representative of our ideas, but an assemblage of characters, by means of which the signs of a language addressed to the ear are rendered visible; whence it follows that no languages but those of speech can be either written or read—languages of sight traced on a surface, such, for example, as hieroglyphics, being painted and not written: that hence again the only real writing is syllabic or alphabetic: that the alphabet in common use is a writing strictly universal, since it is capable of representing every sound of every language: that universal writing is not therefore a discovery now to be made, the only thing wanting being a universal tongue; and that every research after pafigraphy should be regarded in this light, as an oral and not a visual language; that an oral language of this description would be highly useful, more easily learnt and retained than any visual language, and not more difficult to accomplish: but, finally, that the difficulties attending either are so numerous and extreme as to be altogether insurmountable; and that a universal language is in the same predicament as the perpetual motion. ‘Let us limit ourselves, therefore,’ observes our author, and we heartily concur with him in the recommendation, ‘to the amelioration of our own; nor let us be afraid, while making the attempt. The language whose employers will be most open to the dictates of reason, and will most readily throw off the trammels of custom, will soon be the best constituted language of any:—and the language which shall obtain such success will be, at all times, that which will make the nearest approach to universality.’

With this memoir the volume closes; and we now proceed to vol. III. of the Class of Literature and Polite Letters, of which we have already examined the first seven memoirs.

‘VIII. Sepulture, by M. Gouvé.’ This is a truly excel-

lent poem upon a subject which has been dreadfully abused in the course of the revolution. To re-establish a decency and solemnity in what relates to it, we have already noticed the appointment of a special commission on the part of the class of Moral and Political Sciences, and two reports which it has successively drawn up and communicated through M. Baudin*. The barbarities daily perpetrated during the nefarious æra of Robespierre seem to have deadened the heart to all the feelings of nature: the bodies of the deceased were often not interred at all: and when burial actually took place, it was too generally conducted in the most indecorous and brutal manner;—while the tombs of the most renowned characters were, in many instances, despoiled and ravaged either from the base hope of plunder, or the phrensy of political enthusiasm. M. Gouvé, in the poem before us, laments the barbarous taste of his countrymen, and the ruin which has thus overwhelmed the peaceful abodes of the great and the good. The whole is written with considerable pathos and animation. With the following verses we have been particularly pleased, and shall endeavour to translate them, that we may extend some part of our pleasure to those who may not understand the original.

‘ On se sent agrandir au tombeau d’un grand homme !
Les arts m’en font garans; des morts que l’on renomme,
Dans le bronze vivant, dans le marbre animé,
Ils rendront tous les traits à l’univers charmé.
Mais ce n’est point assez pour le cœur qui les aime :
Leurs images, hélas ! ne feront point eux-mêmes.
C’est eux, c’est leurs débris, que nous voulons trouver.
Aux pieds de leurs tombeaux nous aimions à rêver.
Là, du recueillement ressentant tous les charmes,
Nous trouvions à la fois des leçons et des larmes :
Il semblait que du fond de ces cercueils fameux
Une voix nous criât—“ Illustrez-vous comme eux.”
Voilà l’illusion que nous avons perdue.
Vous tous, que pleure encore la patrie éperdue,
Consolez-vous pourtant, si vos corps mutilés,
Loin de leurs monumens, languissent exilés ;
Bannis de vos cercueils, et non de votre gloire,
Vous restez dans nos cœurs, et dans notre mémoire.
Là, se sont retranchés vos débris immortels ;
Là, se sont relevés vos tombeaux, vos autels ;
Et, contre les pervers soulevant tous les âges,
Vous immortalisez jusqu’à leurs vils outrages.’

‘ Ourselves grow great beside the great man’s tomb ;
Art leagues with art to guard the hallow’d gloom ;

* See Appendix to Critical Review, vol. xxxiv. p. 516.

The breathing brass, the marble boldly warm,
 Still give the world each venerated form.
 But, ah! can this suffice to those who love?
 No—'tis their statues, not their selves, we prove:
 Their selves, their ruins, still the heart would find,
 And pause and ponder o'er the grave assign'd;
 With fond remembrance to the past return,
 Shed precious tears, and precious lessons learn:
 For, from their tombs, a voice with hollow sound
 Thus seems to speak—"Like us be virtuous found."
 Such is the fond illusion now that fails!
 But ye whose worth your country yet bewails,
 Be this your solace: Though your limbs may lie
 Far from their destin'd tombs, and native sky,
 Torn from your graves, but not from glory torn,
 Here, in our hearts, our memories, are ye borne:
 Here your immortal ruins we re-blend;
 Here rise your tombs, your altars re-ascend,
 Against your foes confederate every age,
 And e'en eternise their barbarian rage.'

The fifth line from the close cannot but strongly remind us of Pope's epitaph upon Gay, and constitutes a sort of parallelism which is often by too fastidious critics mistaken for a copy.

'IX. On the Opinions of different Philosophers and celebrated Writers of Antiquity concerning the Ancient Republics. By M. Bitaubé.' Memoir the third and last. This paper is a continuation of M. Bitaubé's 'Observations on the first two Books of the Politics of Aristotle,' printed in the second volume of the present class, and noticed by ourselves in the Appendix to vol. xxxiv. p. 521. The republics more particularly examined in the article before us are Lacedæmon, Crete, Carthage, Athens, and the Achæan state; and the writers principally consulted, besides Aristotle, are Plato, Plutarch, Xenophon, Polybius, and Thucydides. Concerning the Spartan republic, he seems sufficiently to have vindicated it, though without intending to do so, against the severe and exaggerated accusations of his colleague M. Levesque, which have just fallen within the range of our consideration. The reason, however, is obvious. M. Levesque has described it almost exclusively from Aristotle, who sacrificed its constitution at the shrine of that of Athens, from a wish to obtain popularity in this latter city; while M. Bitaubé, discrediting on this very account the statement of the Stagirite, adheres with equal partiality to the more favourable narration of Polybius. Upon his account of the other republics here enumerated, we have nothing particular to observe. All of them, he concludes, though founded by celebrated characters, present nothing more than the infant school of republican in-

stitutions: yet the cradle of liberty must ever have attractions in the eye of a philosopher. If he find, among these different states, many laws imperfect, he will perceive others highly useful, and will witness civil institutions in every respect worthy of remark.

‘X. Second Memoir on the Colours and Dyes of the Ancients. By M. Ameilhon.’ The former memoir of this ingenious philosopher was printed in the first volume published by the present class, and noticed in our Appendix to vol. xxxii. p. 537. Our author there observed that the art of dyeing consisted of three principal operations; first, in thoroughly cleansing the substance to be dyed, and in freeing it from every foreign matter which might preclude it from imbibing the dye; secondly, in disposing it, by particular compositions, to receive into its pores the colouring principle, and to retain it when introduced; thirdly, in preparing the colouring bath into which it was to be plunged, and in working it according to the rules of art. The first of these three divisions of his subject, M. Ameilhon has sufficiently treated in the memoir just referred to: in the present he enters into a consideration of the two remaining; and we shall briefly attend him in his inquiries. He believes that the ancients were acquainted with the use of mordants from a very early period; and in this we fully coincide, though we cannot indubitably trace the existence of such a custom in the passage which M. Ameilhon has quoted from Plato as demonstration of the fact*. Pliny†, indeed, speaks more to the purpose; and the Greek manuscripts treated of by Fabricius seem to decide the question. The mordants employed were alum, which is perpetually spoken of as an article in dyeing by both Greek and Roman writers, cerusse, and verdegriſe; the two latter of which, however, are rather dyes themselves than erosives. Pliny also makes mention of the frequent use of the gall-nut, the root of the wild vine, the rhus sylvestris, and several other austere and astringent as well as alterant substances.

The mineral acids, which constitute so large and important an article in modern dyeing, are unquestionably of modern application alone: they were not even known to the ancients, who, in a variety of instances, instead of these substances, had recourse to highly concentrated vinegar, and the juice of citrons. M. Ameilhon candidly confesses, however, that, while he finds repeated mention of these vegetable acids among both Greeks and Romans, he cannot trace them to have been employed in their dyeing manufactories. It is nevertheless certain that they employed alkalies; for we find express mention, in a variety of in-

* Οὐνεὶν ἀρχαῖα—ὅτι ἐκ βεβήτων, &c. De Republ. lib. iv.

† Candida vela postquam attrivere, illinuntur non coloribus, sed colorem fortibus medicamentis.

stances, of the use of urine, lime, and nitre, or natrum; the last of which was unquestionably a vegetable of this class, and is asserted by Theophrastus, who merely follows the definition of Aristotle, to have been a salt educed from the ashes of burnt wood. They were also acquainted with sal ammoniac, and with the means of extracting tartar from the leys of austere wines. Of the application of these substances, as at present used, we have, however, no decided proofs; but the ingenuity that would point out the mode of obtaining them, in all probability determined their utility and appropriation.

‘XI. Memoir on two Latin Inscriptions, and on Opobalsamum; which is the modern Balsam of Mecca. By M. Mongez.’—The inscriptions referred to were found by M. Ribou, in the neighbourhood of Bourg, in the department of the Ain, who sent copies of them to the National Institute. The first is as follows:

MARITVM COL AEG P
TIAC OPOBALS AD CLAR

The second thus,

MARITVM LEWDDES D
POBALSAMATVM AD ASPR

M. Mongez, dissatisfied with the explanation of M. Ribou, who conceives that they are designed to express the attachment of a wife for her husband, who was one of the Leudes highly celebrated in the French and German provinces, pursues a clue antecedently offered by count Caylus, and contends that they were merely inscriptions or labels of oculists of the fourth or fifth century, who, to warrant the genuineness of their medicines, applied to every preparation its appropriate impression, and had it engraved on such pieces of stone. In this interpretation he is countenanced by a similar kind of engraving dug up at Gloucester, and thus explained by Chishull in his dissertation on a medal discovered at Ephesus. He therefore deciphers them thus; believing that both refer to the same oculist:

MARITVM COLLYRIVM AEGYPTI
TIACVM OPOBALSAMATVM AD CLARITATEM.
MARITVM LEWDDES D
OPOBALSAMATVM AD ASPRITVDINEM.

In plain English ‘Maritum’s Balsamic Collyrium of Egypt, for clearing the sight.’ ‘The Balsam of Maritum Lewddes for dryness of the interior part of the eye-lids.’ This ‘dryness of the interior part of the eye-lids’—*sécheresse de l’intérieur des paupières*—should rather perhaps be rendered ‘for correcting acrid humors of the eye.’ After all, our author considerably fails in interpreting the word *Maritum*, which, he admits, ought to be in the genitive case, and refers both this ano-

maly and his incapability of resolving the additional D at the end of the first line of the second inscription, to the gross corruption of the Latin language in the fourth and fifth centuries, the imagined epoch of these inscriptions, interwoven as it was with German, Flemish, and French. This, however, is completely to cut the knot instead of to untie it, and is to allow a latitude of interpretation that would enable us to explain any inscription in any way we might chuse. *Maritum*, moreover, is not only, *in his opinion*, in the nominative case, but *opobalsamatum*, which, in both instances, is obviously an adjective, requires in the latter a substantive to be connected with it. It is highly probable that as COL means collyrium, D may intend *decoctum*, or some other preparation of opobalsamum having the same letter for its initial; which will then just give us the substantive we are in want of. LEWDDES is obviously in the plural number, and seems to intimate that the medicine was the property of more than one branch of the family, and was perhaps a co-partnership concern: but if LEWDDES be plural, so also must MARITUM, and we then obtain, allowing it to be of the third declension, the very genitive case which the construction requires. M. Mongez may probably be obliged to us for these hints. The memoir closes with a history of opobalsamum, extracted principally from the writings of Theophrastus, Dioscorides, and Pliny, and, in more modern times, of Du Lobel.

‘XII. On the Construction of the Dome of the Madonna della Salute, at Venice, compared with the Dome of the Invalides, at Paris. By M. Raymond.’ The superb church of the Madonna della Salute was erected about the middle of the seventeenth century, agreeably to the plan and under the superintendance of Balduino Longhena; the church of the Invalides, or rather the dome of that church, about half a century afterwards, under the direction of Jules Hardouin Mansart. We cannot, however, follow M. Mongez in the present comparison, for want of his plates, which amount to not less than seven, and are essentially necessary to the illustration of his subject.

‘XIII. Report on the Means of enabling the whole Body of Spectators, of whatever Number they may consist, to hear the Orations and Music of National Feasts. By M. Mongez.’ The national feasts of France have, in general, been so numerously attended, that not a hundredth part of the spectators, nor indeed any excepting those situated in the immediate vicinity of the national altar, could hear any thing that occurred. M. Mongez was particularly struck with this inconvenience at the pompous celebration of the funeral of general Hoche, whose *éloge* constituted the most interesting part of the ceremony. He instantly thought of some means to remedy this evil, and shortly afterwards communicated his plan to the present class of the National Institute, requesting the appointment of a commission

to investigate its advantages. The commission was appointed accordingly; and the report before us contains the result of its researches. M. Mongez first endeavoured to prove to his colleagues of the commission, that no scheme, of which the ancients were possessed, was able to carry the voice of an orator beyond the common limits of discriminate speech: that something might have been gained by the art of modulation, as taught by the phonasci or professors of modulated sounds; but that the speaking-trumpets, said to have been introduced within the masks of public dramatists, never existed, and never could have been employed. He then advanced the two following propositions; 1st. That the orations which should be spoken at the national altar should be pronounced at the same time by other orators disposed, at equal distances, among the spectators, and that all should begin at the same moment by means of appropriate signs. 2d. That different orchestras should execute, in the same manner, the vocal and instrumental music which should be performed at the national altar. The commission reduced both these propositions to experiment, and found that in every respect they answered the purpose proposed: that the different voices and bands of music did not interfere with each other; and that, when situated in the direct centre of the space between two or more pulpits or orchestras, in which each might be equally caught, they heard that alone, or at least distinctly alone, to which their right or left ear was principally inclined, while the opposite catenation of sounds produced no discord whatsoever. We are surprised that in this report no notice should have been taken of the magnificent commemorations of Handel at Westminster Abbey, of the immense volume of modulated sounds which was produced, and the immense concourse of spectators who attended.

‘XIV. On the History and Process of Polytypes, and Stereotypes. By M. Camus.’ The terms monotypes, homotypes, polytypes, and stereotypes, have been used perhaps of late years without any great degree of accuracy; and M. Camus begins his memoir with a more precise definition of their respective meanings; reducing the whole, however, at length to two classes alone, *polytypes* and *stereotypes*; *monotypes* and *homotypes* being merged in the generic term of *polytypes*. His history extends to all the different varieties of printing and engraving with which we are acquainted, whether by the use of wood or metals, whether by fixed or movable types, block-printing, single types, or types with matrices. In the course of this history we find ample justice done to our own countryman William Ged, whose curious edition of Sallust in small twelves, published at Edinburgh in 1739, excited universal attention and applause. In the title of the book he tells us it was printed *non typis mobilibus, ut vulgo fieri solet, sed tabellis seu laminis fisis*. Our author glances, in the course of his history, at the

names and labours of the most eminent typographers who succeeded Ged, and endeavoured to improve upon his principle; he pays particular attention to the assiduous ingenuity of Hoffman and Herhan, and closes with the beautiful stereotype publications of Didot the father and son. He has introduced into the body of his memoir exemplars of several different typographies, as well as vignettes. We are surprised, however, to find that, in alluding to the use of wood, he has taken no notice of the perfection to which wooden cuts have of late been carried among ourselves by a variety of ingenious artists, and especially by the Bewickes.

‘XV. Addition to the Memoir on a German Book, The Teüurdanck, printed p. 170—211 of the present Volume. By the same.’ Of the exploits of sir Teüurdanck, and the Memoir here referred to, we gave an account in our appendix to vol. xxxvi. p. 525. M. Camus in the present paper states his confirmed conviction that the edition of this poem of 1517 was printed with movable characters; and adds that he has since met with two additional exemplars of the edition of 1517, the one on vellum, with plates illuminated in colours and gold; the other on paper, with unilluminated plates. He has also met with one more exemplar of the edition of 1519, which is printed upon paper.

‘XVI. Additions to the Memoir on Polytypes and Stereotypes, inserted in the present Volume, so far as relates to Hoffman and his Polytypes. By M. Camus.’ These additions have been collected by M. Camus since his Memoir was printed, and render the history of this renowned typographist more full and perfect. They contain, however, no incident of sufficient importance to induce us to extract any thing from the memoir.

With this paper the volume closes. And having now conducted our readers through three volumes of each department, comprehending not less than nine of the entire productions of the National Institute, we have enabled them to appreciate for themselves, with some degree of correctness, the portion of merit they possess. We have, moreover, offered a summary view of our own estimation of their value at the conclusion of our analysis of the second volumes, from which we see very little reason to differ at present. The volumes we have just closed exhibit the same paucity of contributors, and the same paucity of subjects: their articles are almost equally prolix, and their language not much more precise. The fourth set of volumes have reached us; and we shall commence them in our next Appendix.

ART. IV.—*Annales de Chymie.* (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 534.)

Annals of Chemistry. No. 121—126 inclusive.

THE 121st number commences the forty-first volume, published in 1802, and the first article is an important one: it is the report of the Commissioners of the National Institute on the Experiments of M. Volta. The commissioners were, Laplace, Coulomb, Hallé, Mongez, Fourcroy, Vauquelin, Pelletton, (probably Pelletier), Charles, Briffon, Sebatier, Guyon, and Biot. The report is a masterly one, and explains, very satisfactorily, the phenomena of the Galvanic pile from the accumulation of electricity. We shall give a very short abstract of the foundation of the authors' reasoning.

‘The principal fact, on which all the others depend, is the following. If two different insulated metals, with their own quantity of electricity only, be placed in contact, on separation their state of electricity is different; one is positive, and the other is negative. This difference, which is inconsiderable on each contact, when successively accumulated in an electrical condenser, is strong enough to affect very sensibly an electrometer. The action is not exercised at a distance, but only on contact, and continues as long as the contact continues: its intensity, however, is not the same in all.’

On these principles, the commissioners explain, with great precision, the phenomena of the Galvanic pile, and engage in some very minute and curious calculations on the subject, which it is impossible for us to follow. Why have we not a judicious abstract of what is known on Galvanism in our own language?

M. Thenard's ‘Observations on the Combinations of tartarous Acid with falsifiable Bases, and on the Properties of the Salts which result,’ are also very valuable. He shows that tartrites of pot-ash unite with different earths, with metals, and with ammonia, forming triple salts. These salts are more or less soluble; which is the reason why no precipitate ensues on adding tartrites of pot-ash to calcareous baritic or strontian solutions, or their salts. Lime appears to have the greatest affinity to the tartarous acid, and magnesia less than the alkalis. Our author also found that the tartrite of pot-ash would unite with all the metallic tartrites, and form with them bodies wholly peculiar; the greater number of which are not decomposed by alkalis or alkaline carbonates. The tartar emetic, which is one of the triple salts, is rendered uncertain in its effects on the human body by the tartrite of lime, tartrite of pot-ash, acidulous tartrite of pot-ash, and its proportion of water. To avoid these causes of uncertainty, the oxyd of antimony must be in excess, and the

crystallisation must be carefully conducted, selecting the tetrahedral and octahedral crystals. It appears, from these experiments, that the tartrites of pot-ash dissolve many of the metallic oxyds, as well as alumine and the carbonate of alumine: consequently, in such combinations, no precipitate ensues on adding an alkali, as the oxyd is dissolved by the tartrite of pot-ash. The tartrites of soda and ammonia may also form triple salts; and some earthy and metallic tartrites are in like manner capable of a mutual union. The same property seems to be extended to oxalates and nitrates. In some cases, there is reason to suspect the existence of quadruple salts of this kind.

Some English discoveries, from the Philosophical Magazine and Mr. Nicholson's Journal, as communicated in the Journal Britannique, follow; and we next find a judicious memoir from a young chemist, M. Darocq, 'on the new Combination discovered in Zaffre,' which M. Brugnatelli considered to be the cobaltic acid. No such acid, however, seems to exist; and what deceived the Italian chemist appears to have been the acid of arsenic combined with oxyd of cobalt.

M. Van Marum next describes the method by which he succeeded in decomposing water by means of the electric spark; and this account is followed by a description of a stove on the principles of the Swedish chimney. These are incapable of abridgement; but a historic account of the various contrivances to warm rooms at a slight expense is curious and interesting.

The number concludes with an abstract of a German work, entitled 'A Description of a new Galvanic chemical Apparatus, and the Experiments in which it has been employed. By M. Simon, Professor of the Academy of Architecture at Berlin.' The description depends on the plates.

The 122d number commences with 'Observations on the Method of ascertaining the Strength and Purity of Pot-ash,' a subject of considerable importance to the manufacturer. It is not easy to abridge the directions, which are sufficiently clear and explicit; and we only need to add, that the best mode of ascertaining the quantity of pure alkali in the common pot-ash is by the means of the nitrate of strontian.

The memoir which follows is 'on the Use of Madder, followed by a simple and certain Process, to obtain the Adrianople Red of the greatest Beauty and Solidity of Colour.' It is well known that earths and metallic oxyds have more or less the property of attracting and retaining the colouring particles of vegetable and animal substances. Alumine, however, and the metallic oxyds, do not retain the colouring particles just mentioned, with equal force. Those of madder adhere most strongly, and the others follow in order, commencing with those whose attraction is strongest—grains of kermes, cochineal, logwood,

yellow Indian wood, gaude, quercitron, fernambouc, red Indian wood, grains of Avignon, &c. Galls, sumach, and the other astringent substances, act chiefly by means of the gallic acid, and, with respect to their solidity, may be placed after madder. The particular process for giving the greatest vivacity and solidity of the madder colours can be read with advantage only in the memoir itself.

‘Abstract of a Report made at a Conference of the Council of Mines on Oxyds of Manganese, capable of being used in the Arts.’ The greater part of this report is local, and on the relative value of the manganese of France, compared with that of Germany and Piedmont. In some respects the Piedmont manganese is preferable, particularly in preparing the oxygenated muriatic acid; in the glass-works, that of France and Germany is equally good. The processes, however, by which the superior advantages of the different oxyds of manganese are ascertained, merit the attention of the English chemists. There appears to be no method of adding to its proportion of oxygen.

‘An Abstract of the Explanation of a new Method of separating the Silver alloyed with Copper in counterfeit Money, by M. Napióné.’ It is well known that copper which contains less than one half of silver cannot be submitted with advantage to cupellation; and the other method of liquation is troublesome as well as inconvenient. Our author, reflecting on the strong attraction of copper for silver, thought of separating in this way a part of the copper, till the remainder would be rich enough to allow of cupellation. He succeeded in this attempt, and separated small portions of silver from copper at about one-fifth of the expense which would have been incurred by liquation.

A Report made to the Institute ‘on the Establishment formed by MM. Anfrye and Lecour to extract Copper and Tin from the Scorizæ of Bell-Metal.’ The authors of this report are Guyon, Deyeux, Vauquelin, and le Sage; nor should we omit observing, that no foreign communications are more interesting than these academic reports. They are generally satisfactory on the subjects entrusted to their care; and the authors seldom fail to render their papers valuable by collateral information of importance. This remark is suggested by the article before us, which, though seemingly of little value, will contribute greatly to the reader’s instruction. The scorizæ in question have been usually considered as of trivial estimation, and have been sold to repair high-ways. The mode employed to render them valuable is to oxydate the tin which thus combines with the copper; after which the latter is separated by washing. The tin is reduced by $\frac{1}{11}$ part of charcoal; and precision in this proportion is found to be important; and the tin is said to be equal to English tin. The grain is close, and of a greyish colour, like pure tin; with

a sixth part of antimony, the colour is less vivid, the crackling less considerable, and the metal is brittle; while the Malacca tin bends without breaking, and is not granulated. The tin from the bell-metal was indeed found to contain a little copper, and the East Indian tin was brought to resemble it, by adding $\frac{1}{12}$ of zinc; but the change appeared to be really owing to lead. A singular fact is communicated, on the authority of MM. Volta and Brugnatelli, viz. that a combination of zinc with tin may be immediately discovered by its becoming useful in the Galvanic pile. A union of zinc with tin is particularly advantageous in forming the plates, as the metal is of a silver colour, and does not oxydate so soon as pure zinc. The silver paper of Germany is covered with a mixture of this kind, and becomes fit, in this way, for Galvanic purposes. The Malacca tin, in our authors' opinion, is much purer than the English. We know not how their tin was procured; but we have seen many specimens of English tin even more pure than the Indian. The latter certainly possesses no lead. The tin sold in France contains 0.03 of copper, 0.01 of lead; the refined tin of MM. Anfrye and Lecour contains 0.01 of lead and $\frac{1}{250}$ of copper. The oxyd of tin procured by these artificers is also found to be useful in polishing steel. The commissioners boast that this manufactory *restores to commerce* more than 1500 *milliers* of tin, and two millions of copper: but plunder must have its bounds; and, when *churches* have no longer *bells*, MM. Anfrye and Lecour must shut up their elaboratory.

A note 'on the Hydrosulphure of Soda' is valuable. Berthollet long since informed us that sulphurated hydrogen had many properties of acids. The mother waters, after extracting the carbonat of soda, from a ley furnished by the manufactory of MM. Payen and Bourlier, the object of which is not mentioned, yielded, after some rest, a white transparent salt, crystallised in rectangular tetraedral prisms, terminated by pyramids of four sides. Some crystals were octoedral. This is not the shape of the crystals of carbonat of soda; and, on examination, the salt appeared to be a hydrosulphure of soda, from the manufacturers not employing a sufficient quantity of lime to saturate all the sulphur, which arises from the decomposition of sulphat of soda by charcoal.

'Abstract of a Memoir containing some Galvanic Experiments, by A. C. Gerboin.' The object of these experiments is to establish a closer analogy between Galvanism and electricity, by showing, in the effects of the former, some traces of attraction and repulsion.

The idea of earths and alkalis being compounds seems to be revived by a chemist of Freyberg: but no considerable progress has been made in the analysis. M. Lampedius, of the same place, was able to produce ammonia by adding water to crude or

cream of tartar, after it had been calcined till it exhibited no traces of smoke or flame. The experiment may be repeated by again moistening the same calx, and will succeed with the acidulous oxalate of pot-ash, but not with charcoal mixed mechanically with pot-ash.

The observations of M. Ritter 'on some Effects of the Electrical Fluid set in motion by Volta's Pile,' are, we fear, too fanciful. One wire is said to give heat, the other cold; one to give pain, the other to take it away; one to excite the sensation of blue, the other of red. M. Gerboin, in a former article, claims the priority of having observed the phenomena of attraction and repulsion in this fluid.

An advertisement of the *disinfecting* and preservative Bottles mentioned by M. Guyton de Morveau follows. They contain an extemporaneous oxygenated muriatic acid. On opening the phial, the vital air exhales, and the person is surrounded by a pure atmosphere. The virtue will continue many years, and may be preserved in all climates. The ingredients are given quantities of common salt, black oxyd of manganese, and nitric acid. The theory is sufficiently obvious.

The 123d number commences with the abstract of a Memoir, by Mr. Kennedy, inserted in Mr. Nicholson's Journal, announcing the discovery of soda and muriatic acid in some stones. It appears probable that this memoir has been communicated to the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and may again become the subject of our notice; but, as we cannot at present turn to the part we have received of that respectable Society's Transactions, and as we shall soon be called to consider the fundamental question on which the whole rests, we must at present remark that Mr. Kennedy's object is to connect the whinstones with lavas, and to point out the existence of soda and muriatic acid in the former, in proportions nearly the same as occur in the latter. We allow the facts: but he has omitted one material part of the question, *viz.* the comparative aerial contents. This is the great fundamental point of difference between lavas and traps which have not experienced the action of fire.

Memoir 'on a native Phosphat of Iron mixed with Manganese,' by M. Vauquelin. It has been said that nature has churlishly denied to France her share of valuable minerals. In this memoir it is one object of the author to show that the imputation is unjust; yet he describes a mineral, of which it is not easy, at the first view, to make any use. It contains, in 100 parts, 31 of oxyd of iron, 27 of phosphoric acid, and 42 of oxyd of manganese. From its brilliant colours, it may be of service for glazing porcelain, or perhaps for enamels.

'Observations on the acetous and acetic Acids,' by M. Darroq. This young chemist, whose talents we have already extolled, endeavours to show that the only difference between

these acids consists in the proportion of water and a mucous substance, which exists in a greater proportion in the former. If this be true, there will be acetats, and not acetites.

'A Treatise on the dangerous or ataxic (irregular) Fevers,' by J. L. Alibert. Of this treatise there is an abstract by M. Cadet. We have already noticed the work, in which we found little to praise. We return to it on account of the botanic description of different species of cinchona which we omitted in our former article. The *C. officialis*, he remarks, is very scarce, as well at Santa Fè as in Peru. It is of an orange colour, highly aromatic, without any sensible astringency, 'infallible in ataxic fevers.' The red bark, described as very common, is more astringent and less aromatic: the yellow bark seems to show little astringency in the mouth, and is said to be more weak in its powers than the other species; but is commended by Rutis, an observer on the spot, as more efficacious in checking any tendency to decomposition in the fluids, and less dangerous, than the red or the orange bark, as of a more laxative quality. The third is now in this country—the *C. alba ovali folio*: it appears to be a bitter only, with little astringency, and its virtues are more easily extracted by water than those of the other species. The botanists of Peru, we are informed, prefer the bark of the trunk and the larger branches, that of old rather than of young trees. If kept free from moisture, its activity, it is said, increases with time. After all, he tells us that we are not acquainted with the true kina, which is a leguminous plant, and called, in Peru, corteza of the cascara of Loxa.

M. Delaville's 'Observations on the Sap of the Asparagus and Cabbage' offer nothing interesting, or that will admit of any application.

M. Dezcroizilles describes an accident which happened in consequence of breaking a bottle in which phosphorus was immersed in water, by freezing. A sudden thaw freed the phosphorus from its icy coat; and it took fire. The terra Japonica, we are told, in a letter from London, contains a large proportion of tan; and it is supposed that it may be imported with advantage for the use of the tanner. We are informed also that the Galvanic fluid hastens the process of both acid and putrefactive fermentations. Other Galvanic experiments are mentioned in the same article, but are neither new nor important.

Memoir 'on the Gluten,' by C. L. Cadet. The author's object is the vegetable gluten, which, we know, is of an animal nature. When fresh, it is insoluble in alcohol, and only becomes so after it has undergone an acid fermentation. When dissolved by alcohol, it may be precipitated again by water; and the solution, inspissated, becomes a useful varnish. The fermented gluten, diluted with alcohol, unites with colouring matters, so that they may be spread on the smoothest bodies.

This colour dries fast, gives no bad smell, and may be washed without injury. Vegetable colours unite with it more perfectly than mineral; and the gluten, with lime, forms a very solid adhesive lute.

‘Experiments on the tanning Principle, and Reflexions on the Art of Tanning,’ by M. Marat Guillot. This paper scarcely admits of an abstract, and is not very interesting. We perceive, in the minutes of the Session of the College of Pharmacy, which follow, that M. Proust considers the method that he formerly recommended for separating the tanin, by means of muriat of tin, as insufficient; and the other processes which he has tried are attended with other inconveniences.

The 124th number, the first of the forty-second volume, begins with an account of ‘Experiments on Galvanism, made with an Apparatus in the Manner of Volta, composed of forty Strata of metallic Plates of six Inches Diameter,’ by M. Simon. The subject is not at present concluded; and the experiments are so miscellaneous and numerous, that they do not admit of abridgement.

Report, by M. Guyton, ‘on an Instrument designed to point out the Purity of Gold.’ This is a hygrometer, resembling, in its principle, Mr. Nicholson’s instrument. It is adapted for gold only, and is, in M. Guyton’s opinion, correct and convenient.

‘On the Hydrosulphure of Pot-ash,’ by M. Vauquelin. As our limits would not permit us to copy the properties of the hydrosulphure of soda, we must pass over those of the present salt. The crystals are nearly similar; but the solids of the latter have sometimes six sides. These two salts are distinguished by adding a few drops of their solutions to equal quantities of the solution of alumine in sulphuric acid. The pot-ash produces a crystallisation of the alum immediately; the soda has no such effect.

‘Observations on the Use of Oxygen in the Cure of Tetanus,’ by M. Sarazin, Surgeon, of Paris. Two cases are related very clearly, and the effects of the remedy were striking: each patient, however, was much exhausted; one by previous suppurations, the other by a long-continued disease. In the former, nitric acid was given by the mouth, and in a clyster; in the latter, the oxygenated ointment was rubbed in, and, when the patient could swallow, oxygenated water given for drink.

‘Efflorescences of Sulphat of Magnesia observed in the Quarries of Montmartre’ by M. Socquet, Professor of Chemistry at Chambery. The quarries of Montmartre are, as is well known, felenitic. The separation of the acid, in M. Socquet’s opinion, is favoured by the presence of iron, which is chiefly found where those efflorescences appear. Our author imitates the process in his experiments; and this view of the subject, he thinks, will explain why schistose pyrites, containing much magnesia

and lime, afford, in the act of decomposition, Epsom salt exclusively, without a particle of selenite or alum, if the magnesia be in sufficient quantity. In this way, sulphat of magnesia may, he thinks, be prepared artificially with advantage.

‘Objections to a Proposition of Lavoisier on the Evaporation of Fluids,’ by Dr. Carradon of Prato. Lavoisier considered that the form of bodies, whether solid, fluid, or gaseous, depended on the proportion of caloric, augmented to such a degree, in the last instance, as to counteract the pressure of the atmosphere. Our author objects that he has not taken into the account the affinity of bodies for caloric. Some, as the fat oils, have no affinity, and for this principle will burn or be decomposed, but will never ascend in vapour.

‘On the Oisanite or Anatase,’ by Vauquelin. This is a stone found near Oisan, in Dauphiny, which Haüy, who admits no appellation from the place where the fossil rises, has changed to anatase, which signifies that its form is elevated. It is white, blue, of a reddish brown, or greenish; its crystal a very sharp octaedron. M. Vauquelin thought it metallic, and supposed that he had found a new metal: it appears, however, to be an ore of titanite.

‘A literal Translation of Observations on the Kermes Mineral, or the Red Hydrosulphurated Oxid of Antimony. By M. Cavezzali, chief Apothecary to the civil Hospital at Lodi.’—We cannot follow this reasoning at length. It is well known that, in this preparation, the oxyd of antimony is united to the sulphurated hydrogen with a little sulphur. Our author found, that the metal should not be oxydated in excess, and that the alkali should be in greater proportion. He consequently augmented the proportions of the nitrat and acidulous tartrate of pot-ash; recommending a pound of the sulphur of antimony, two pounds and a half of nitrat of pot-ash, as much tartar, with six ounces of sulphur. The access of air and of a strong light is highly injurious.

The next article is ‘on a superoxygenated Ore of Lead,’ bought at the sale of M. Aubert, analysed by M. Vauquelin, and extracted from the 63d number of the Journal of Mines. This mineral contains about 0.39 of oxydated arsenic and iron, with about 0.22 of oxydated lead.

M. Proust’s memoir, formerly alluded to, follows, in which the difficulty of separating the tannin, in a pure state, is explained. He adds the different forms in which this principle appears in different bodies, which he styles species, though evidently owing to other combinations.

The 125th number commences with ‘The Analysis of the Diaspore,’ so called by Haüy, because, when heated by the flame of a candle, it throws out sparks, which float in the air,

with the brilliant colours of the iris. M. Vauquelin could find no other ingredient than alumine; but the quantity analysed, was small. In analysis, it resembles the telefia; but the physical properties so greatly differ, that the diaspore must contain some other principle, perhaps water.

‘Experiments on Charcoal, by MM. Clement and Desormes.’ We have noticed the discordant opinions on this subject in the present article. Our authors agree in general with Mr. Cruickshank; and contend, with great force of reason, that charcoal contains no hydrogen. They conclude, that fluids inclosed in all the different gasses, evaporate with equal celerity in some circumstances; that charcoal gives out no water in evaporating, and consequently contains no oxygen: its oxygen, they think, must be equal in different pieces, as the carbonic acid is the same. At a high temperature, sulphur and charcoal unite. In the result, which, in different circumstances, is a fluid, a solid, or a vapour, there are no traces of hydrogen. The oxydated gas of charcoal contains no hydrogen; and the authors admit that the carbonated sulphur is not a new discovery.

‘New Experiments on the Counterpoison of Arsenic, by C. Regnault;’ an abstract by M. Deyeux. This is a thesis, and a valuable one. M. Navier’s counterpoisons were found to be useless: the soluble sulphures of iron they were unable to prepare in the manner directed. The sulphurated hydrogen, recommended by Berthollet and Fourcroy, destroyed the effects of the arsenic, when it was in a liquid state, and had been previously digested with the sulphurated hydrogen. When emitted separately, it was less valuable, and, when the dry oxyd was given, useless. In a metallic state, arsenic was not poisonous: but it soon oxydates in the air. The *native* yellow sulphur of arsenic is harmless; but the artificial orpiment is poisonous; for, in the former, the metal is not oxydated; but usually it is so in the latter. After the poison is swallowed, oil seems, from our author’s experiments, to be injurious; and he recommends mucilaginous drinks, or warm water only. The signs of death from arsenic, are, he thinks, equivocal. The only remedy is free vomiting; and, as some cannot discharge by the stomach, mucilaginous drinks may, he suspects, be conveyed by a hollow bougie, passed through the œsophagus, and pumped up by a syringe.

‘Abstract of a ‘Notice’ on different Processes proper to correct the Salts of some Kinds of Iron and Steel, by M. Levasseur.’ We find nothing particularly new or interesting in this article.

The propolis, by some called virgin wax, was found by M. Vauquelin to consist chiefly of a resin, with a little wax, and some vegetable and animal *débris*; but different specimens should be

examined. It is sometimes used as a lacquer, but is little known or employed.

'Some Hints on the different Combinations of Cobalt with Oxygen, followed by Observations on many Ammoniaco-metallic Salts, by M. Thenard,' follow. The various colours observed, on adding an alkali to a solution of cobalt, are well known. Our author could never discover the rose colour: but he distinctly saw the blue, olive, puce colour, and black; and he shows that they depend on different proportions of oxygen. The triple metallic salts, *viz.* the ammoniaco-sulphats, nitrats, and muriats, occur, in his opinion, with cobalt, nickel, zinc, lead, tin, copper, and silver. The fixed alkalis will not, in the same way, form a triple combination. Those just mentioned are imperfectly crystallisable.

M. Proust, professor of chemistry, has published, in a Spanish journal, a criticism on M. Foucroy's late system. This article Foucroy has translated with notes, in the 26th number. The remarks he receives with great good humour, and promises to attend to them in another edition. Some short notes are added.

M. Berthollet replies to M M. Clement and Desormes: but we find nothing that we can extract with advantage.

M. Parmentier's 'Observations on the Sugar of the Beet-Root' are very judicious. He shows that sugar cannot be extracted, with any moderate advantage, from European plants, compared with what the sugar-cane yields. Some observations on the other saccharine vegetables and fruits are subjoined.

'Observations on an aquatic Insect, by M. Prevost.' This insect forms a new genus, and is styled *Cherocephalus*, from the four fins attached to the head when young; which afterwards disappear. The chief observation of importance is, that a silver dish is fatal to it, if the water in which he lives be put in a vessel of this kind. The consequence derived from this fact is, that silver may be anthelmintic. He advises some leaf-silver to be beaten up with water, but not wholly immersed in it, as he found that silver partly wetted renders the water more deleterious than wholly covered. He has not tried this medicine: but he thinks all metals possess in some degree an anthelmintic property.

(To be continued.)

ART. V.—*Recueil de Noms par Ordre alphabétique, &c.*

A Collection of Terms, in an alphabetical Order, applied in Mineralogy to Earths, Stones, Metals and Demi-metals, and Bitumens; with an Abstract of their Natural History, and Synonyms in German, Latin, and English; followed by a Lithological Table, constructed from the Chemical Analyses. A new Edition, corrected, and augmented by the Nomenclature of M. Haüy, by Prince Dimitri de Gallitzin, F.R.S. &c. Brunswick. Folio. Imported by De Boffe.

WHILE the science of mineralogy has extended its bounds beyond whatever the most eager imagination had supposed to be its limits; and while the nomenclature has proceeded, not on one given principle, but from fancied analogies, and the aid of the Greek or Latin languages, according to the predilection of the mineralogist; a collection of terms was at least requisite—a vocabulary, if not a dictionary. We have strongly urged such an attempt in English; but while *our* mineralogists hesitate, we must avail ourselves of the labours of those of the continent. This before us might furnish a very convenient foundation; but we should wish the superstructure to be more extensive. No period can be more favourable than the present, since the works of M. Haüy and M. Brochant form a sort of æra which gives a stable foundation, and since their nomenclature will obtain a more permanent station than the fancies of inferior naturalists.

‘The excellent treatise of mineralogy,’ says the prince de Gallitzin, ‘by M. Haüy, the publication of which I expected in vain for two years, has rendered a new edition of my “Collection” absolutely necessary. It has shown the errors of the former work, and proved it to be wholly inadequate, since the mineralogic nomenclature is completely changed. I determined, without hesitation, on the measure; and resolved also to take this excellent work as my guide, respecting the definition of minerals and their mutual relations.

‘I will not allow myself to add my own opinion of the new nomenclature. It has been appreciated by the learned, many of whom are the abbé’s countrymen. When masters have decided, scholars should be silent. I shall transcribe only that of the crystalline forms, since crystallography is one of the most essential parts of the work in question, *which is not yet so extensively circulated in Germany as to be consulted by those who will read mine.*’

The primitive form of any substance is pointed out by the primitive word added to the name of the species. The secondary forms relate to various circumstances, which we were unable to

detail, from their extent, in our review of the abbé's work, and, for the same reason, cannot enlarge on in this place.

"A Collection of Terms" admits not of abridgement. We have endeavoured to find a specimen which might give an adequate idea of the author's information, of the extent of his compilation, and of some original communications, which are occasionally interspersed. It is difficult, however, to discover an article of this nature, whose limits are, in other respects, suited to our purpose. We shall take one almost at hazard.—

Mésotype de Haüy.

- Zeolite of Cronstedt (zeolythe, properly so called.
- Zeolithe in prismatic or pyramidal needles of Lisle.
- Strahliger zeolit of Werner, Lenz, and Emerling,
- Bransestein. Kammspath of the Germans.
- Zeolite of Kirwan.
- Zeolithes figurâ determinatâ of Wallerius.

• The mésotype, of which M. Haüy makes a separate species, is the same substance which Cronstedt, who introduced it to our knowledge, called zeolite, from a kind of ebullition which it shows when exposed to the action of fire. Considered, for a time, as a schorl or a tourmalin, it was at last distinguished and separated from them. But, says M. Haüy, as if its separation with the schorls were still felt, it became, in turn, after its separation, the rallying point for many substances which had only a doubtful relation to it; such as the property of melting in a spongy mass, of coagulating with acids, &c. The subject was so little attended to, that the formation of the coagulum, on dissolving, (which, after being found in the zeolite of Cronstedt, was extended to all others) is perhaps the exclusive property of the mésotype: at least I have in vain attempted to discover it in my trials with different varieties of these minerals.

• The same motives which determined that celebrated philosopher to suppress the term schorl (see the article Amphibolæ), induced him no longer to retain that of zeolithe: he has consequently called it mésotype, which signifies the mean, primitive, form; because its primitive form presents a mean term, between the nuclei of the analcime and the stilbite—two species most frequently confounded with it. He distinguishes three varieties of determinable forms: 1st, Pyramidal mésotype (radiated zeolithe, Strahliger zeolit of Emerling and Lenz); 2d and 3d, Pointed and octaedral mésotypes.

• The crystals of the first variety belong very decidedly to the zeolite of Cronstedt. The two others M. Haüy has annexed, till further observations warrant a different conduct, on account of their mutual relations from the laws of structure. It was the best judgement he could form from measures taken of objects so small as to elude the precision which certainty requires.

* The varieties of the indeterminable forms are—1st, *Aciculär méfotype* (fibrous zeolite, *safriger zeolit* of Emmerling; to which many mineralogists join the capillary zeolite); 2d, The globular (in globules striated internally from the centre to the circumference); 3d, The amorphous.

* *Méfotype* is whitish, transparent or translucid: it scratches the calcareous spar; and loses electricity by heat: its refraction is double: its specific gravity 20.833: its fracture a little glassy.

* The analysis of the pyramidal *méfotype* is among the varieties of the genus ABC.*

Before we explain the table just referred to, we shall transcribe the passage which relates to *schorls*. As we cannot return to the abbé Haüy's work, this will give our readers an idea of his accuracy and precision.

The amphibole of Haüy is the *schorl* of Daubenton; the *gemeine hornblende* of Werner, Emmerling, and the other German mineralogists; the basaltic hornblend of Kirwan. The passage we shall transcribe is quoted from Haüy.—

* Natural history perhaps scarcely offers more numerous errors within a narrower compass. The character of fusibility by the blow-pipe, employed with little address, served at first as a connecting link of these pretended *schorls*.

* After confounding very different substances, by trusting a property by no means decisive when employed separately, we began to call every new body a *schorl*, whose crystals, when regular, approached a rhomboidal form; and, when confused, were lengthened inflated prisms, and re-united by bundles. This gave an unfaithful resemblance to the *schorls* already known, which was taken for a family-likeness. Sometimes, when any fossil occurred unlike what had been formerly seen, it was called a *schorl*; because it must be something. M. Lagrange, on this occasion, called the *schorl* the *nectarium* of mineralogists."

The tables are peculiarly instructive. It appears, from calculation, that the combinations of the nine known earths with each other (excluding the yttria, as well as metallic, saline, and watery impregnations) amount to 40320, of which scarcely 50 are ascertained. "I leave the reason of this scarcity to be determined by learned naturalists. Does Nature keep them from our view? or does she refuse to produce them?"

A table of the various analyses follows, in which the component parts are pointed out by letters—the predominant ingredient being discriminated by the first letter. The nine earths are marked by the nine first letters of the alphabet.

* It contains 50.24 of flint; 29.30 of alum; 9.46 of lime; 10 of water—(Vauquelin).

We shall transcribe the conclusion.

‘ We have seen, in the foregoing tables, that flint furnishes the greater number of combinations; and that it is mixed with all the other earths: in many it is the predominant principle. Lime, on the contrary, considered by M. Fourcroy as an alkaline earth, has furnished very few. Is not this an additional proof that the latter originates from marine bodies, and is produced from shells? Its affinity with acids adds weight to the idea. We have scarcely any calcareous earths without some acid, particularly the carbonic: some contain three acids—such as the common opatite (phospholite of Kirwan, the *chaur phosphatée unibinaire* of Haüy)—if the analyses of M. Pelletier be exact. These acids are not accidental, but seem to form a constituent principle.

‘ Barytes and strontian are in a similar predicament: all the specimens contain carbonic or sulphuric acid; and, though phosphorus can be extracted from some barytic substances, particularly the Bolognian stone, it is not a constituent part. Indeed, their nature is not clearly ascertained; and hence Fourcroy has arranged them with the alkalis.

‘ Let me offer one question in this place. Flint, as we have seen, admits of every possible combination with alumine, lime, and magnesia: it only refuses its alliance, if the term be admitted, to the other five earths: are not these, then, the truly elementary earths? I know that chemists have called every earth an elementary one, that cannot be reduced to greater simplicity; so that the other five earths may claim this title: yet these naturalists formerly acknowledged as earths those only which constituted the mixed primitive rocks; and the others must, on this supposition, be excluded, for they are only found in some crystals. M. Hoëpfner, indeed, assures us that he has discovered a granite mountain, one of whose ingredients was barytes. This, however, was not a primitive granite; and no other naturalist has seen it; though, on the credit of M. Hoëpfner, M. Saussure has formed a particular genus of granite of this nature. Are not, then, all these earths modifications of the elementary earths, particularly of the siliceous? Are we certain that the elementary earths, in their spontaneous decomposition, by their union with acids, with each other, &c. may not produce new combinations which may display new properties? This question I leave to our philosophers and naturalists: it merits their attention.’

If our earnest wish, so often repeated, to obtain a judicious mineralogic dictionary in the English language, be not attended to, let us at least recommend a translation of the present work. The translator must, however, be master of the subject, and of his own language; for the style of prince Galitzin is confused

and inelegant. Notes also will be requisite, to correct some inaccuracies and some mistakes. In its substance, the present collection merits considerable attention; and even at this time, which is nearly twelve months from the publication, little remains to be added.

ART. VI.—*Collection de Mémoires, &c.*

Collection of Memoirs on the Colonies. By V. P. Malouet, formerly Minister of the Colonies and of Marine. 5 Vols. 8vo. (Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p. 555).

WE have already noticed the first three volumes of these Memoirs*, which were limited to the history and transactions of French and Dutch Guiana: of the two remaining volumes, the former is devoted exclusively to St. Domingo, and the latter to general observations relating to the colonies at large.

Respecting the first, 'it is six-and-twenty years ago,' says our author, in an extensive introduction, 'since the work which composes this volume, and relates to St. Domingo, was completed. It was submitted, in 1775, to a committee of legislation assembled at Versailles, composed of the ancient administrators civil and military. The eternal opposition of those two classes, and the preponderance of the latter, allowed of no useful result from this discussion.—The revolution of 1789,' continues he, 'found the administrators, the colonists, the agents, the tribunals, and the free people of colour, in such a situation that a dissolution of the colonial government was inevitable. It may not be useless, in the present day, to examine what was at that time proposed, to consolidate and reform it. My own views and observations may have appeared hazardous six-and-twenty years ago: but if in this lapse of time they have been justified by experience; if I foresaw from that period the tremendous succession of disorders, of negligences, in an incoherent system, which I then denounced; my reflexions will have acquired the authority of time, and their adoption will perhaps experience less difficulty.'

Many of M. Malouet's observations are entitled to the utmost degree of attention and applause. The following may be useful to ourselves, as applying to other colonies than that of St. Domingo.

'Colonies cannot be governed as are their mother countries; for they have neither the same end nor the same means. If democracy, which has shed so much blood, had even been prac-

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. 36, p. 555.

ficable in France, it was an absurdity, worthy of these latter days, to wish to transport it into the colonies.—Independently of all the abuses which I have denounced in my *Memoirs*, there existed, and there exists still, a fundamental vice, a germ of destruction, which I have not there sufficiently pointed out, but which has been amply developed by posterior events. The colonial government is not supported, either within or without, by any moral power, by any appropriate political combination; and there is, appertaining to it, a re-union of wishes and of interests far more ready to overthrow than to maintain it.—Oriental despotism has for its support the religion which it sanctions, the soldiery which exists upon it. The Levantines at Algiers, the Mamlukes in Egypt, the men of law and the janissaries in Turkey—these, in conjunction with the Alcoran, are the moral and political powers which succeed in upholding even the worst of all possible governments.—What similar aids has the colonial government to rely upon? None whatever. Discord between the very interests which over-rule it; no superstition which may assist it; a progressive augmentation of the modes and means of its annihilation; deficiency in the forces which protect it: such was the situation of our colonies in their most flourishing state, which we may fix at about the last twenty years which preceded the revolution.'

It was in 1775 that our author published his first memoir on slavery and the employment of the negroes in America. We object now, as we objected then, to his principle; for we can never consent that man should brutalise and coerce, or even buy up the liberty of, his fellow man; but we approve of his regulations, so long as the nefarious interests of trade and luxury shall support this iniquitous system. His voyage to Surinam in 1777, of which we have already given some account, made him more sensible of the vices and dangers of the conduct actually pursued. He condemns the mode in which the question of the abolition of the slave-trade was conducted; and we believe that imprudence was too often intermixed with benevolent intention; nor is it improbable that many of the more clamorous partisans were instigated rather by politics than humanity, and politics by no means of the purest character.

'The friends of the blacks,' says M. Malouet, 'constituted, even at this time (1777), a corresponding society in France and England. They profited of our errors to attack our principles; they seized possession of the public opinion, and demanded with much vociferation the emancipation of the negroes. Philanthropic publications were multiplied for ten years: the colonists were enraged, but without taking or provoking any measure of safety; and the government continued a mere spectator of this quarrel. The convocation of the states-general prepared the

last explosion, which it was even yet easy to have prevented; but it was determined that no fault should be omitted, to reach, by the shortest path, the utmost extent of misery. The situation of the people of colour in the colonies had been regulated, as every thing else was, without reflecting what they might become by their multiplication and the possession of estates—without any combination in favour of interests which might be either attacked or defended. In every country in which slavery is established, those of free origin form necessarily the first class; but the enfranchised, while remaining in the second, ought to find a community of interests with the first, which regards them as its auxiliaries: the full measure of absurdity is in placing them at such a distance from the whites, that they may expect to become gainers by becoming their enemies. This is what has been done. Instead of maintaining, by a hierarchy of proprietors, a subordination of the people of colour, an extravagant vanity has proposed their degradation; and, when the power of withdrawing is at hand, no class of men will suffer themselves to be degraded.

‘The mischiefs which the mulattoes have done us, the atrocities they have committed, shall not, nevertheless, prevent me from recollecting, that their introduction, at the opening of the states-general, had nothing reprehensible belonging to it. They had deputies at Paris, and an honest advocate for their counsel, M. Joly, with whom I had a conference. He communicated to me their memoir, which was moderate: they requested to be admitted, in common with other proprietors, to the exercise of political rights—a request, which was as imprudent on their part as on ours, in the sense in which it was understood; but to ameliorate their condition, to approximate them to ourselves, was a measure equally necessary for both parties. The colonists of St. Domingo associated themselves, at this time, to the number of two or three hundred, in a deliberative assembly, at the Hotel de Massiau: here they made motions, entered into resolutions, harangued, talked nonsense—according to the custom of the times. I engaged the mulattoes and their counsel to present themselves first of all to this assembly; judging it most important that the proprietors themselves should evince, on such an occasion, a sort of patronage towards the people of colour, by evincing that they were favourable to their pretensions, which we might have circumscribed within proper limits, had we assumed the initiative. I attended this assembly myself with this express view; but hardly was I suffered to be heard. In vain did I represent that it would be for the public weal we should show ourselves the protectors, and not the adversaries, of the people of colour; that the revolution, which was announcing itself with most fearful events, would, in spite of all our efforts, do more in their behalf than they themselves intreated; that it

was a matter of prudence, therefore, to attach them to our interests; that it was indispensable they should be courteously received, and prevented from presenting their petition to the states-general without our concurrence. My observations were as ill received as the petitioners themselves: these were treated with contempt; they in consequence retired discontented, and shortly afterwards collegued with the ringleaders of the projected subversion in the colonies. The national assembly having once acceded to this question of equality of rights with respect to the people of colour, it was easy to foresee its issue after the democratic delirium which agitated us; and it was on this occasion I endeavoured to prove, by the principles and spirit of representative government, that the colonies, in whatsoever compromised their safety and existence, were not reducible to the legislative principles and maxims of the mother country.—We have now tried every thing. Unlimited slavery has produced a revolution—the proclamation of liberty has produced every crime, every wretchedness. We at length arrive at a *régime* of precautions.’

Our author now proceeds to offer his precautionary system. The regulations he proposes discover an enlarged view of the subject, and are equally founded on sound policy and benevolence of heart. He would have the subordination of the mulattoes most rigidly maintained; but, in the midst of this subordination, he would give them a system of laws for their own protection and security, while in the discharge of their duty—laws which should be so explicit as that the slave may thoroughly comprehend them himself, and so active in their operation, that the most powerful colonist should never transgress them without punishment. He would also put their own redemption into their own power, by allowing them some small quota of the profits of their own industry; and when they had thus risen from the class of slaves into that of freemen, he would have them fairly participate in the honours, offices, and emoluments, of commerce, or even legislation.

‘The Portuguese and the Spaniards have black slaves, like ourselves; yet peace exists in their warehouses, subordination is maintained without trouble in their colonies. Whence these effects?—because their domestic arrangements are good, and ours bad: because slavery, among them, constitutes a regulation of family—religion and the law protect it; its condition is mild; there is a prospect of amelioration; it admits a change of masters, the proprietor of him who is dissatisfied being indemnified by the allowed value of his labour or his skill: if the master abuse him, the *cure*, the magistrate, the sessions, attend to his grievances. In fact, his industry is able to procure him the means of enfranchisement; and the enfranchised, become a proprietary, enters hereby into the political hierarchy. He finds

situations above him; but his own is not degraded: no civil, ecclesiastical, or military function, is interdicted to him.—Why have not the English, the French, the Dutch, adopted these modifications? The time is now come in which they are indispensable: the law must be declared; and it may yet be a *conservative law*.’

In the course of our author's examinations, Adam Smith, as may well be expected, is exhibited in a favourable light. ‘When Smith's work,’ says he, ‘appeared, his theory was judged of systematically; but experience has proved it to be converted, in many points, into axioms.’

‘While I am writing,’ he continues, ‘general peace is proclaimed; yet French blood still flows in the torrid zone: a black, a mulatto, who had become old in slavery, disputes the sovereignty of St. Domingo with the hero-pacificator of Europe! his bloody banner displays itself against the victorious colours of the republic! he *permits* the whites to live under his authority without abasement—he destroys them the moment a wish is expressed to supercede him in the colony! Behold, then, this secret of horror exemplified. The liberty of the blacks!—it is their mastery; it is the massacre or the subjugation of the whites; it is the conflagration of our fields, of our cities. At the moment of this explosion, moreover, signs of a universal confederacy are exhibited throughout all the British islands. Is any thing further requisite, to prove the propriety of extreme precaution, of a plan of defence and regulation?—But let not our indignation prevent us from being just: the chiefly culpable are always the leaders: the exemplary punishment of these, and the strict rein of discipline, are sufficient for the multitude. These blacks have obviously forfeited their liberty: let them be reburdened with the yoke: their officious defenders can demand nothing more than what reason, humanity, experience, point out to proprietors—to *modify slavery in every respect in which their own security is not compromised*.’

These observations relate to the French Antilles at large. With respect to Gaudaloupe, where the insurrectionary tumult has never been very violent, our author would not press any fresh changes at the present moment; repressive steps are, he thinks, sufficient alone. He gives the same advice respecting Cayenne, in which the cultivation of spices seems to be in no small degree prosperous, the plants having wonderfully thriven, and multiplied, and left little else to be done but to gather their produce.

‘Of all our colonies,’ says he, ‘the most important, that which is of more value to us than the mines of Brazil and Peru—St. Domingo—is in a most deplorable state. It is there that the

revolution, its principles, and its various forms, will still leave profound traces, even after the national authority *shall be re-established*. It is there that it is necessary to display an equal portion of strength and of wisdom, and to overthrow large capitals, if we would obtain any new harvests. It is calculated, that, out of five hundred thousand negroes of every age and sex, there have perished by the sword, within the last ten years, nearly two hundred thousand males, being half the blacks in a state to carry arms, and not less than half the population of the whites, amounting to from thirty-five to forty millions of souls. Every report, nevertheless, announces a great increase of children, and less mortality among the young negroes than before the revolution, which is imputed to the absolute rest their pregnant women enjoy, and to less fatigue on the part of the negroes themselves. We may therefore still find at St. Domingo three hundred thousand negroes of every age, from ten to twelve thousand people of colour, and twenty thousand whites: but in what a situation, in what habits and moral dispositions, shall we perceive these different classes of inhabitants? The great proprietors are almost all ruined—without credit, without resources: discouraged by their miseries, they stand in need of the aids of government, which ought not to despise their experience. The men known under the denomination of *petits blancs* (subordinate whites) constitute that part of the population which requires the greatest degree of watchfulness. They have always been turbulent, and, during the revolution, dangerous. The mulattoes have been atrocious, although there are exceptions to be made. Those who ought to be distinguished are easily known. But, in general, this class ought to be maintained in subordination, without ever permitting, and in punishing, indeed, every transgression very severely, the personal vengeance which the whites would exercise over them. The old free negroes merit more confidence; they generally exhibit a better conduct. This intermediate order ought to be watched over, but well treated. Besides that justice demands this, we have occasion for their services.'

Our author here enters into a still more detailed statement of his views respecting the restoration of this important island. He arranges them under two principal divisions—means of police—means of credit. We shall not follow him through the chain of his argument, but shall briefly observe, that, for the most part, his ideas appear to us just and liberal. Whether, however, his countrymen will ever be able to accomplish them in the main point—to obtain a complete subjugation of the blacks, and reduce them once more to a state of simple slavery, but slavery protected, as we have already observed, by laws appropriate to that distinct class of society, and inflexibly executed against

those who transgress them—time only can determine, and it has nearly determined it already. We believe him to be in every respect considerably too sanguine.

We thus close our author's voluminous introduction, upon which we have dwelt the longer, as it forms a summary deduced from the essays of which the body of the present volume consists, written nearly twenty years ago, and concentrates its observations respecting the Antilles at large, and St. Domingo in particular, in their present state and relative situation. The essays which follow are divided into different parts—of which the first adverts to a general idea or interior view of the colony of St. Domingo; to its climate; its manners; its soil and production, both of the French and Spanish parts of the island (for our readers must keep in memory that these essays were composed long anterior to the union of this island, and the transfer of the two third parts, which appertained to Spain, to the French republic); to its slaves; its habitations; its towns, and their commerce. After which account of the domestic state of the colony, our author advances to part the second, which comprises its political state, in relation to the mother country, to foreigners, during peace and during war. In the observations which here occur to us, we find M. Malouet strongly condemning the policy of the court of Versailles, which has so readily relinquished colonial possessions, and even regarded them as a useless auxiliary. '*Louisiana*,' says he, 'an immense tract, more rich and more healthy than New England, *exists no longer for us*, and has not been better known. If merely a fourth part of the assistance which has been lavished so uselessly upon Guiana had been extended to this quarter, it is probable it would have succeeded far better.' The French legislature has since caught the idea; it has been actually wrested from Spain. But the ambition of the first consul has completely overrun his prudence—our author may still say *Louisiana exists no longer for us*.

Part the third is devoted to the civil state of the colony; comprising its administration; its laws and jurisprudence; its policy, and the component parts of its regulars and militia; its marine police; its finances and spiritual regulations. Respecting this last subject, our author instances a variety of the greatest abuses; and we have little reason to conceive that they are fewer or less atrocious now, provided any spiritual régime whatever subsists, than they were in the period to which he refers. The superior of the ecclesiastic mission had at that time, nevertheless, a plenitude of power allotted him by the papal see itself, and appears to have possessed the most absolute controul over his brethren; but never was power more abused, or religion more perverted.

A succession of bad priests, ignorant and irregular, has destroyed, in almost every parish of the colony, respect for the state and the enlightened practice of religion. An atrocious cupidity has become the habitual vice of almost all the ecclesiastics. Occupied alone with the casual produce of their functions, they have made their ministry a business of finance; they have advanced to the most absurd prices the ceremonies of marriage and burial, regulated by express tariffs. A *curé* sends his memorial of service, and imposes from two to three thousand livres on the succession of the defunct. Such an irrational custom, founded upon vanity, makes every one murmur at these exactions while they subscribe to them. As to the rest, no pastoral instruction, nor any thing relating to the simplicity, to the superstition of negroes, occupies these ecclesiastics: not one of them acquires over his parishioners the authority of good morals, of a pious and charitable life. Some few common-place sentiments against fleshly indulgences, stale invectives against men of the world, drive these very persons away from frequenting their churches: eternal quarrels between the priests and artificers, and always relative to discussions of interest, banish all honest men from parochial meetings. The duties of these assemblies are shockingly administered: those who are indebted are almost always behind hand—the churches are falling into ruin—the government remains neuter. Such is, in substance, the actual situation of the church of St. Domingo.

The volume before us closes with a summary of regulations necessary for the administration of the colony of St. Domingo, proposed to the committee of legislation in 1775, and a review of the conduct of its administrators during the troubles it experienced from the re-establishment of a military force. The whole is now, however, become useless: for St. Domingo, like Louisiana, *exists no longer for France*.

Vol. V, and last, consists, for the most part, of Memoirs, which M. Malouet had formerly published separately, and particularly at the time when the tide of popular opinion flowed highest in France in favour of a total abolition of the slave-trade, and when the philosophers and economists united with equal ardor in the general wish. The first is accompanied by a few hitherto unpublished notes from the pen of the count de Mirabeau, who, having espoused the popular sentiment, gives the author credit for having, upon the whole, ably supported a bad cause.

ART. VII.—*Etat Commercial de la France, &c.*

Commercial State of France at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century; or, On French Commerce, on its former Defects, and the Ameliorations of which it is susceptible. By J. Blanc de Volx. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe.

THIS work is dedicated to Joseph Bonaparte, in the hope that the chief consul having in a short period of time advanced the power of the French republic to its utmost extent, nothing remains but to reap the benefit of that pecuniary strength, which, in modern Europe, can only result from commerce. And 'to whom,' says our author, 'could I offer with so much propriety the homage of my labours as to the minister-plenipotentiary, who, in signing the most glorious treaties which have ever dignified France, is now procuring for us the mode of applying them most happily to our new commercial system?' Our author's want of foresight may readily be excused: the heterogeneous and anomalous events of the present day baffle all the powers of prediction and speculation; and where the man of experience errs, the novice is often found to have guessed aright. M. de Volx, in the same tone, and animated by the same hopes, thus opens his preface.

'A new order is about to arise; peace is succeeding war, tranquillity tempest, laws anarchy, and stability the uncertainties, and perhaps the troubles, which are inseparable from temporary elections in a government not sanctioned by a long existence. Honour to the august body, which, by the most wise and necessary of organic laws, has imposed a check on every kind of ambition, has regained the hearts of those who were hostile, and has suppressed all the germs of future discord! Honour to the restorative government which has resuscitated the empire of protecting laws and holy institutions, reconciled man to their principles, and triumphed over the dangerous errors with which revolutionary passions had inoculated' [*inoculées*—why not *vaccinated*, while our author was about it?]' every class of society. France at length breathes, and the days of happiness begin.'

We rejoice however to find, in the present military views and military government of the French republic, that any man can flatter himself with the hope of sufficient encouragement to a work of this description; and if, in its prosecution, we do not always meet with the enlarged ideas and accurate deductions of several veteran writers in our own country, and especially of the author of the *Wealth of Nations*, whose path M. de Volx

seems anxious to follow, we must recollect, that the whole science is at present but in its infancy in France, and that the present writer has difficulties to struggle with, which time and experience can alone disperse. 'If population and agriculture,' observes he, in his introduction, 'have in all ages proved the first elements of the strength of an empire, commerce, in its two-fold object, and especially in our own days, is become their rival, and has at times supplanted them. The history of commerce, which we yet stand in need of, if traced with a dextrous pen, would offer the most captivating picture which the human eye can contemplate. It is associated with every thing that the mind of man accounts great, with every thing the passions possess which is unruly, with every thing the sciences offer which is charming, or the arts which is wonderful. The progress of civilisation among all nations follows more or less rapidly the march of commerce, which either accompanies or outstrips its career.' Divided into four grand epochs, which discriminate the chronicles of the universe by commerce, the observer may become acquainted with the genius, the manners, the passions, the virtues, of the nations who have successively deluged the world with blood, or dazzled the earth with their glory. By it, far more decidedly than by military records, he may seize every shade, and mark every transition, through which a people pass progressively from a state of nature and barbarism to their decline and fall: he may perceive how they are conducted through the paths of civilisation, of laws, of institutions, of arts, of riches, and luxury, to corruption, the last link of this long chain, the constant and certain harbinger of approaching ruin. Finally, such a history might become the only elementary book whence men of property would afterwards deduce great examples and important lessons.

'The first epoch might present to us, in succession, the attempts, feeble and infantine in their beginning, of the Egyptians and Phœnicians; the more courageous enterprises which followed; the vast excitements they offer to commerce; when fortified by their earlier experience and success, they easily acquired immense riches and luxuries: and, finally, the history of the Greeks, the imitators and disciples of these two nations in legislation and arts, as well as in commerce. A profound knowledge of this fostering art among these people might aid us in explaining the greater part of the fables of their ingenious mythology; and might ultimately show us in what manner their ideas, aggrandised by commerce, terminated in the production of those inimitable models which have merited the honour of being imitated by modern nations, and which constitute the utmost glory of their civilisation and their researches. The second epoch might make us better acquainted with the history of Rome and Carthage, their long rivalry, their cruel wars in

Sicily and Spain, in Africa and Asia, all of which had commerce for their object and end, on the part of the Carthaginians, while the Romans were only influenced by a spirit of domination. We should perceive, that, although a warrior nation might subdue a commercial nation enervated by its own wealth, the former is, in its turn, ruined by the very riches which it ravishes from the people whom it conquers; as was the case with Rome after the destruction of Carthage, and the reduction of Greece into a Roman province, at the moment when its own power was annihilated by the barbarians of the north.

The third, still more interesting to us, would offer a picture of the manners, of the objects, and of the principal advances, of modern nations in the middle ages; the influence of commerce and civilisation upon the laws, the arts, and the free opinions which were universally propagated; the independence which the greater number of towns hereby acquired; the confederation to which it gave birth on the borders of the Elbe and the Weser; the new ideas with which the arts of Greece, at this time enervated and degenerate, inspired those warriors whom an inordinate zeal urged onwards to the shores of the east; and which, putting a boundary to our age of iron and feudal servitude, prepared for Europe those brilliant days which followed the new birth of letters and commerce. Finally, the fourth epoch, uniting the discovery of America and the Cape of Good Hope, would evince the influence which commerce has acquired over all modern nations; its interests, which regulate every treaty, every alliance which the different governments project or realise, every plan of politics or war which has been executed in the old world, or, since its discovery, in the new; the spontaneous or progressive advantages which every people has hence obtained, and which it has lost, the moment it has ceased to protect commerce, or has been unable to afford it protection.

Upon this subject it cannot but be observed, and truth compels the avowal, that it is not to the French nation that the most brilliant part appertains in the history of the commerce of modern times. Of all the different states engaged in this immense career, the Portuguese were the first who associated the glory of execution with the hazard of enterprise. In recompense for their courage, India opened to them her productive mines, and resigned to them her treasures. But soon did the successors of the great Albuquerque—not less barbarous in Asia than the Spaniards had been in America—behold the chief part of the new empire which they had founded, disputed and wrested from them by those same Spaniards. Not less covetous of riches, the Dutch delayed not to enter into a participation with them. Revenge having now united itself, in their persons, with a thirst after gold, they sought to obtain satisfaction in India for the war which Phillip II had made upon them in Europe. More

phlegmatic, more patient, more cunning, perhaps more dextrous, they finished, by wresting from their first depopulators, the richest portion of their conquests, which they have even preserved to these latter times.

'The English appeared in their turn. Tangiers and Bombay, which Catharine of Portugal carried as her dowry to the reigning prince, and shortly afterwards Jamaica, which they seized from the Spaniards, were their first possessions beyond their own island: all the three colonies, thrown by nature upon the most opposite points of the globe, and each not less remote from their newly-adopted mother country, it has been said, that, by this very difference of situation, they foretold to the astonished world that their fortunate possessors were destined, on a future day, to rule the immense oceans which surround them; to bind the universe in chains of a new slavery, and, *by the humiliating yoke imposed on elements and on men, to weary out both the one and the other by a power hitherto unknown.*—In vain did the French, who, among commercial nations, if I except the Danes and the Swifs, appeared last on the coasts of Asia, attempt to strive with energy and perseverance against the English: wars long and dreadful, maintained in Europe for the interest of Indian commerce, made torrents of blood flow in vain—the commercial balance always preponderated in favour of England. One moment, it is true, towards the middle of the last century, the power of England was menaced with the loss of its supremacy, and a total drain of the resources of its wealth, by the genius, the perseverance, and the dexterity, of Dupleix and Labourdonnaye. To the misfortune of France, however, disagreement sprang up between these two great men: their controversy paralysed every plan they had proposed, and which stood in need of the strictest unity for their execution: it turned back the storm which menaced the English Indies, and neutralised the first successes which Labourdonnaye had already obtained. More unfortunately still, Dupleix died; and a narrow and financial government—entrusted to faithless agents, whose interests were different from those of the state—upon the return of Labourdonnaye to France, refused to follow the plans which he proposed for adoption, and recompensed his services by a *lettre de cachet*, which threw him into the dungeons of the Bastille. It was thus England beheld herself delivered from the two most terrible adversaries with whom she had to contend in India. Alarmed in regard to those possessions, which create her strength and riches, ever since this epoch, pains, perseverance, sacrifices, nothing has been spared to augment and consolidate her power: her negotiations, her wars, her treaties, have only been decided by the interests of her commerce.

'Instructed in their turn by the example of England, no other

nation has long delayed to appreciate the great advantages of commerce. Already have their interests united; and frequently have they alone domineered in the political plans of the greater part of the courts of Europe. Within less than a century, therefore, the history of all nations, with the exception of a very few, is nothing more than the history of commerce; whose influence is not less on their manners, their legislation, their luxuries, their arts, than on their political and military plans.

‘Such should be the history of commerce, which would determine, with unquestionable precision, the causes of power or of weakness, the brilliance or obscurity, the progress or decline, of every nation, according as it may have cultivated, protected, and extended, this productive art, which is become the first of arts in our own æra, and the most imperious of our wants. I leave to a more able pen the task of completing this ample sketch. The historian who shall dare to execute it, will prove the benefactor of his age and country. But if I possess not the talent which is necessary to encounter such an undertaking myself, I am at least able to hazard some few ideas upon the matter of commerce. If, among the observations I am about to submit to the government of my country, there should be some which may merit its attention or awaken its solicitude, I shall not have laboured altogether in vain.’

We have preferred presenting a full portrait of our author's abilities, by one ample extract, to an exhibition of them by a variety of detached sentences and sentiments. Like himself, we should rejoice at beholding an able and comprehensive work on the subject he proposes; and, though we should perhaps be disposed to vary the plan in some few particulars, we should for the most part approve the scheme he has delineated. We have anticipated much of what the volumes before us contain; and have only occasion, therefore, to state the order of their division. The first volume treats consecutively of commerce and its importance; the encouragements which have been given to it; of money, credit, loans; is it best that a government should be borrower or lender? of banks; of the two kinds of imposts, direct and indirect; and of luxury considered in its relation to commerce; of agriculture, and the commerce of grain; of manufactures.—In vol. II, the chapters are dedicated to external commerce; navigation and marine; the commerce of the North; the commerce of the Levant; the commerce of the Levant properly so called, and of Marseilles; the commerce of Barbary; of the African company, and of Corsica; the commerce of Senegal, and the isles of France and Madagascar; of the commerce of India; of the commerce of America.—Vol. III relates to customs, rights of ingress and regress, tariffs, transits, and prohibitions; on free and contraband articles; on free ports and staple commodities; on cor-

porations, franchises, and privileges; on failures, bankruptcies, and arrests; on commercial legislation; on chambers and councils of commerce, and of an individual chamber for the regulation of the commerce of France.

Our author proves obviously that he has studied his subject—though the closet is uniformly more conspicuous than the counting-house. He is intitled to no small degree of approbation from the commercial world at large, and to an ample praise from his countrymen.

‘The task I proposed to myself,’ he observes in his conclusion, ‘is finished. I am unquestionably far from having fulfilled the end I wished to have attained; but I, at least, dare to believe that I have opened a wide career to the reflexions of statesmen and writers who are animated by the generous hope of the prosperity of the state. If I have erred, it is with all the sincerity of a citizen who has meant to do well. I have obtained a glimpse of the object in view, if I have not actually reached it: I leave to others the pains of completing this honourable task, which I have merely indicated; and, without false modesty, as without envy, shall applaud their success, and thank them for having done better than myself.’

ART. VIII.—*Histoire d'Hérodote traduite du Grec, &c.*
Paris. 1802.

The History of Herodotus, translated from the Greek, with Remarks historical and critical; an Essay on the Chronology of Herodotus, and a geographical Table. New Edition, revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged. To which are subjoined the Life of Homer, ascribed to Herodotus. Extracts from the History of Persia and India, by Ctesias, and the Treatise on the Malignity of Herodotus: the whole accompanied with Notes. In 9 large Vols. 8vo. Imported by Payne and Mackinlay.

THOUGH no species of literature has less credit attached to it than translation, there is scarcely any in which it is more difficult to excel. M. Larcher, however, the translator before us, has not now his reputation to acquire. His version of Xenophon's Expedition, some years since, intitled him to praise; and his former edition of Herodotus considerably augmented his fame.

In the preface to this valuable work, M. Larcher repeats, to the 24th page, with little variation, what he had before written; but after having adverted, in an additional paragraph, to the imputation of plagiarism charged on his author by Porphyry, in page 25, he takes up a second censure of the same writer, which has since been adopted by others, and vindicates Herodotus from

the blame cast upon him for too frequently indulging in ill-timed digressions. In this view, M. Larcher traces, with judgment and precision, the plan on which he conceives Herodotus to have written, concluding with a retrospect on his history at large, which evinces that an intimate connexion subsists through all its parts, not one of which could be retrenched without injuring the rest; that, though rapidity of narration be the characteristic of the historian, yet, to conciliate the attention of his readers, he sometimes stops in his progress, for the sake of introducing more agreeably such incidental information as it behoves them to gain. From the reiterated accounts of his undertaking, M. Larcher, in p. 38, proceeds to point out the particulars which distinguish the present edition. These, after a careful revision of the whole translation, are a correction of those passages in which he was not satisfied with having expressed the exact sense; a greater degree of precision and more compression of style; a reformation of such notes as wanted exactness; with the addition of several that were judged necessary to illustrate various points of antiquity, and render the historian better understood. To this he adds, as an apology for further alterations, 'at length, being intimately convinced of all the truths taught by the Christian religion, I have retrenched or reformed all the notes that could offend it. From some of them conclusions have been drawn which I disapprove, and which were far from my thoughts; others of them contain things, which I must, to discharge my conscience, confess freely, that more mature examination and deeper researches have demonstrated to have been built on slight or absolutely false foundations. The truth cannot but be a gainer by this avowal: to it alone have I consecrated all my studies: I have been anxious to return to it from the moment I was persuaded I could seize it with advantage. May this homage, which I render it in all the sincerity of my heart, be the means of procuring me absolution for all the errors I have hazarded or sought to propagate!'—It is with singular satisfaction we cite this passage; and from the similar declarations of *Marmontel* and *La Harpe*, congratulate the Christian world on the returning influence of truth and reason.

M. Larcher proceeds to state his obligations to the men of letters by whose aid he hath profited, particularly Messrs. Wyttenbach, Coray of Smyrna, and M. Chardon de la Rochette (from the last of whom an excellent edition may be expected of the Greek Anthology). The name of Bruce, however, being here introduced, he lavishes upon him strictures without mercy. Mr. Bruce is nevertheless compensated, in some measure, by the general popularity he has of late acquired in France. That Mr. Bruce is obnoxious to some portion of the censure cast upon him, we admit; but, with this set-off, his book contains much information, and, we may add, much well authenticated fact. The new

edition of it shortly to appear will contain, we are informed, considerable improvements. Having pronounced major Rennell's work on the Geography of Herodotus an indemnification for the disgust created by Bruce, M. Larcher judiciously states his conception of the requisites to render perfect the edition of an historian.

These he specifies to be three, and to depend upon the critical and grammatic part, which fixes the text of the author and explains its difficulties; the chronology, which connects the facts with each other; and the geography, which points out the scenes of memorable achievements, and, by spreading light on the transactions recorded, gives them additional interest.

Wesseling and Valcknaer, though defective in the two last points, have merited much from Herodotus in the first; and if any imperfections have escaped in this department, M. Larcher gives reason to hope for their being repaired in the edition now publishing by Schæfer.

As to chronology, it is observed that what precedes the Trojan war is in great part systematic. In respect therefore to Herodotus, it is only requisite to discover the system, investigate the grounds, and furnish the proofs on which he proceeded. Posterior times to this epoch having been illustrated by men of eminent learning, some few difficulties, it is added, remain, which, without doubt, futurity will adjust.

In respect to ancient geography, D'Anville and his successor Gosselin; our Vincent; Hartmann, Hennicke, Schlichthorst, and Gatterer, are represented as having left but little to be supplied by those who shall follow in the departments they have pre-occupied. The most difficult part, and the most appropriate to this work still remained: this major Rennell is most handsomely said to have supplied. 'He,' says M. Larcher, 'is the D'Anville of England, and greater praise a Frenchman cannot bestow.'

Reverting from these compliments to his subject, M. Larcher observes that, in his former edition, being obliged to compile the table of geography whilst the translation itself was printing, he could not give it the requisite attention. With a view to supply its defects, great care has now been bestowed on the Geography of Egypt in particular, and the articles Heliopolis, Mendes, The Nile, Saïs, Tachompso, Tanis, &c. have either been reformed or re-written: nor has M. Larcher confined his retrospection to Egypt alone; the other countries mentioned by Herodotus have not been neglected. Of this, Chalcedonia, Cos, Eubœa, &c. afford proof. The article Oeroë is discussed at considerable length. On the head of geography M. Larcher expresses his obligations to M. de SAINTE-CROIX, whose *Examen Critique des anciens Historiens d'Alexandre*, which obtained the prize of the Academy of Belles-Lettres in 1772—a work of

singular merit—together with his other writings, have been greatly advantageous to him.

As to the chronology of Herodotus, the reader is requested to observe, it is left to stand on its own grounds. Had it been retrenched, the history of the Egyptians and Assyrians would have been rendered unintelligible. Without adopting the pretended antiquity of the former, M. Larcher deems it absurd. What relates to the foundation of Tyre has been altogether rewritten. New interest is given to chapter v. on the Kings of Babylon, by an attempt to settle the dispute concerning Darius the Mede. Two chapters are also added on the ancient Pelasgi and the Lacedæmonians, in which the author has investigated subjects of difficulty with much acuteness and judgement.

In the chronological canon many changes have been made, and numerous additions. Supplementary to this subject two articles are annexed, which M. Larcher esteems of considerable importance: the one regards Sesostris, and the other the zodiacs of Tentyra. In what relates to the former, however, we can by no means concur, nor does the latter carry with it that fulness of conviction we hoped for from a person of M. VissCONTI's reputation, at least when compared with a paper on the subject written by a countryman of our own. [See Philosophical Magazine for November 1802.]

After assigning his reasons for inserting the Life of Homer ascribed to his author; the Extracts from the History of Persia, by Ctesias; and Plutarch's Treatise on the Malignity of Herodotus; M. Larcher, full of respect for the public, having devoted himself with ardour, in defiance of age and ill health, to the improvement of his work, observes that, though he dare not flatter himself with having accomplished his wishes, he can confidently say, neither care nor trouble has been spared for the attainment of his end. *Posteris an aliqua cura nostri, nescio: nos certe meremur, ut sit aliqua, non dico ingenio (id enim superbum), sed studio, sed labore, et reverentiâ posterorum.* Pliny, lib. ix. epist. xiv.

To give extracts, as specimens of the contents of these volumes, would be incompatible with the limits which other articles require; it is, however, but the bare tribute of justice to say, that M. Larcher has hereby increased his reputation, and presented to the world an abundant harvest of ancient learning.

It was reported from France, and on good ground, that the publication of this book was for some time suspended, in consequence of a parallel, introduced in a note, between Agis, king of Lacedæmon, and Louis XVI. When called upon by authority to cancel it, Larcher, in his 76th year, is said to have replied, that he was too old to make alterations. Finding, however, alteration was necessary to publication, he at length complied. How the passage stood at first we have not been able to learn: at present,

though the name of Louis be suppressed, the observations, upon that account, lose nothing of their force, whilst the last word cuts to the quick.

‘ His subjects were unworthy of such a prince ; his virtuous conduct perpetually reproached them for their crimes. This silent censure irritated them ; and they thought they should free themselves from its operation by putting him to death. This rightful crime, at which humanity revolts, precipitated the vengeance of heaven. Virtue was proscribed by cruel tyrants. Under their government nothing was any longer beheld but confusion, plunder, accusations, murders, and proscriptions, till at length this state, which had been virtuous, passed, as we have observed, under a *foreign domination* *.’

ART. IX.—*Monumens Antiques, inédits, ou nouvellement expliqués, &c. Par M. Millin. Tome I. 4^e Livraison. 4to, Paris.*

Ancient Monuments, unpublished, or newly explained. By M. Millin. Vol. I. No. IV. Imported by De Boffe.

THE contents of this number are, a description of a cameo of the National Library, which M. Millin supposes to represent the head of Ulysses, with an elegant engraving ; a bas-relief of the central Museum of Arts, said to represent the throne of Saturn, with a plate in outline ; a patera of gold of the Cabinet of Antiques in the National Library, exhibiting a challenge between Hercules and Bacchus, with four illustrative engravings ; and an explication of a votive inscription found at Halinghen, near Boulogne-sur-mer, with a copy cut in wood.

The first article begins with preliminary remarks, in which M. Millin discriminates with precision the character of Ulysses, as given by Homer, in opposition to that by the Greek tragedians, for the purpose of showing that the artist had derived his ideas of it from the former, to the exclusion of those degrading qualities by which the latter have disgraced it. Hence the personage represented by the artist is not the shrewd and crafty Ulysses, but he whom Homer hath described, and Horace copied from Homer. The moment accordingly seized is that when, having weighed the nature of the enterprise,

* ‘ Ses sujets n’étoient pas dignes d’un tel prince ; sa conduite vertueuse leur reprochoit sans cesse leurs crimes. Cette censure muette les irritoit. Ils crurent s’en débarrasser en le faisant mourir. Ce crime affreux, qui révolte l’humanité, précipita la vengeance du ciel. De cruels tyrans proscrivirent la vertu. On ne vit plus sous leurs règnes, que concussions, que brigandages, que délations, que meurtres, que proscriptions, jusqu’à ce qu’enfin cet état, qui avoit été vertueux, passa, comme nous l’avons observé, sous une *domination ETRANGERE*.’

and engaged in it, the hero bravely resists the enemy that had dared to assail him. The deliberation, however, and attention on his countenance, show evidently that, even in this imminent peril, his prudence does not desert him; he preserves his coolness, and the firmness of his soul is equal to the greatness of his courage and the force of his arm.

On his head, the *pilidion*, called in common *the cap of Ulysses*, is determined by M. Millin to be the same which was worn by sailors to guard against the humidity of the sea, in opposition to the *petafus*, or hat, worn by travellers on land; though he admits that the use of this cap was of later date, upon the authority of Eustathius, who mentions it as first employed by Apollodorus, the master of Zeuxis; and adds that this ornament was assumed from a passage in Homer hitherto misunderstood, by taking the helmet of Ulysses, which was common to all the kings of Ithaca, as peculiar to himself.

Having collected from Pliny, Pausanias, and others, whatever might apply to this *pilidion* in its simple state, M. Millin considers its ornaments, and is of opinion these were added, after having been introduced by statuaries in their decorations of the gods, citing those on the helmet of Minerva as affording an example. The conflict between the Centaurs and Lapithæ, which it exhibits, is minutely illustrated; the veil which supplied the place of the *lophos*, or horse-tail, is noticed; the Homeric *egis*, as implying the protection of Minerva and Jupiter, is descanted on; and the moment represented is acutely supposed to be that when, returned to Ithaca, the hero had taken possession of the entrance of his palace, in opposition to the persecutors of the chaste Penelope.

The gem itself is well conjectured to have been copied from some celebrated original, which represented Ulysses at length, as well as the whole group to which the story referred. The stone is a cornelian of an uncommon size, and the engraving masterly, though not perfect.

The next subject hath been pronounced by VISCONTI *curious and important*. The architecture is of the composite order, with two pediments on each side, severally supported by two fluted pilasters, having their capitals ornamented with two rows of foliage, but without volutes. In the front centre of this architecture is the throne of the god; over the back a design composed of acanthus-leaves, flowers, and flourishes; the legs, ornamented with foliage, and the same flowers as on the top, stand on square pedestals, with what M. Millin calls pine-cones on their summits, which are also square like the bottoms, having the calyx of a flower in each. On the seat itself a veil is suspended, and beneath it a starry globe, with the zodiac denoted by the four signs of the *twins*, the *archer*, the *balance*, and *fishes*,

resting on a footstool, marked in two equal divisions, each ornamented with flowers.

On either side of the throne are two groups, each consisting of two genii, those on the right bearing what M. Millin styles a vast *barpè*, or hook, whence the scythe of Time was devised. From the attitudes of the others, and the part remaining in one hand (for the remaining three are mutilated), M. Visconti has conjectured that the other genii were contending for the sceptre of Saturn. Much research is evidenced in the illustrations annexed.

Of the patera, which occupies the third disquisition, a preliminary account is given; and, amongst much curious information on similar utensils, we meet with a history of its discovery. A description of it follows, and a detailed explanation, in which M. Millin displays his erudition; but, as this ingenious antiquary has inserted an abridged notice of this curiosity in his *Dictionnaire de Mythologie*, under the word *Bacchus*, and that work is in so many hands, we forbear, for want of room, to copy what otherwise we would gladly present to our readers. The explanation of the medals at the end of this article, which we cannot avoid adding, will be found interesting, though not easily intelligible without the engravings.

The inscription in the last section of this number, read on one side of a square hollow stone, is as follows:

ET DEO IOVI
VICVS
DOLVCENS
CV·VITALIS
PRISC

This monument, M. Millin thinks, was consecrated to several divinities, whose names are lost, from the upper part of the stone having been separated. What remains he reads thus: ET DEO IOVI VICVS DOLVCENSIS CVRATOR VITALIS PRISCUS; signifying that *Vitalis Priscus*, superintendent of Dolucens, had erected this altar to the divinities whose names are lost, and especially to the god Jupiter.

Before we had closed the above account, the *fifth number* of this volume arrived. Unwilling to delay our notice of it till the next Appendix, we at present only briefly state its contents. The subjects, to those who are curious in the representations on ancient vases, will be found particularly interesting.

The first M. Millin pronounces to be a representation of *Orestes pursued by the Furies, and his expiation*; and, to confirm his interpretation, he brings together all the learning to be found concerning the fable: whether, however, this afford a satisfactory explication, and especially of the figures on the re-

verse, we will leave those most conversant with such subjects to determine.

A marble vase in the collection of M. Van-Hoorn, ornamented with a bas-relief representing two monsters with arabesques, conceived in a grand style, affords room for curious remarks, in the second section of the number. The third gives a picture from a Greek vase, exhibiting a conqueror from the chariot race, with Victory rewarding him. M. Millin, on this as on all other occasions, leaves no point of his subject curtailed. We regret that we cannot state his merits more fully; but to appreciate these, we must refer to his work.

ART. X.—*P. S. Pallas Bemerkungen auf einer Reise, &c.*
Leipfic.

Observations made during Travels in the Southern Departments of Russia, in the Years 1793 and 1794. By P. S. Pallas. Vol. II. 4to. With coloured Plates, in a separate Atlas. Imported by De Boffe.

IN our XXVIIIth volume we noticed the first volume of these travels, and gave a general account of the author's object and progress. This, we observed, is a supplementary work, a kind of 'finish' to M. Pallas' former labours, and, from his advanced age, probably the last. Incurious or ignorant must be the naturalist who is not acquainted with this author's former travels, with his *Spicilegia Zoologica*, with the various additions which he has made to every branch of natural history. We are not prepared to name any other veteran to whom this science is so much indebted; and even Thunberg, an unwearied naturalist, whose late works we have noticed in the present number, must yield in competition with Pallas. Gmelin, his colleague and coadjutor, cannot be his rival.

The first volume has appeared in our own language, which we have not noticed, as we wait for the conclusion, to appreciate generally the translator's merits. The curiosity of the reader may in a great measure be gratified by this and the former article. The author, in his preface, excuses the delay of the volume before us, from particular circumstances impossible to foresee or guard against. We next find a list of the plates which accompany this volume—twenty. Three of these are coloured. To which we may add three copies of inscriptions, three charts of routes, one of the Isle of Taman, and fourteen vignettes. All these decorations may in some measure excuse the extravagant price of the work; but, on the whole, we cannot speak highly of their execution: they are splendid—but, as coloured drawings, which they are designed to represent, very defective. The typography we see highly praised in many foreign journals;

but its merit is comparative only. To the English reader it is neat, but not elegant.

The traveller first visits only that part of Tartary which once belonged to the khan of the Crimea: it is the peninsula of the Crimea, and the most remarkable place is Perekop. This country we have formerly visited with lady Craven, and shall again examine with the secretary of a Russian embassy. Since the cession of the Crimea, the Tartars have remained exclusively possessors of the city of Bachtschisarai; and for this reason we find the inhabitants consisting of Tartars and Jews, without a single Russian. Each party has its own magistrates; and they are in general very distinct. The author describes the palace of the khan and the other curiosities of the city; among which we may remark the tombs of the former princes, and the aqueducts constructed of tubes of baked clay.

The port of Sewastopol, or Achtiar, was constructed by the Russians soon after the acquisition of the Crimea, and it rapidly became a considerable city. In its environs are a great number of Grecian monuments; and indeed the whole country, after the æra of Strabo, was known by the appellation of Neraclotic Chersonnésus. The new city of Cherson is situated on the western bank of the bay nearest to the port of Sewastopol. Through the whole of this country we find numerous ruins, old walls, and foundations of houses, in which we still discover the most ancient method of building practised by the Greeks, by means of enormous blocks of stone joined by pieces of wood, and cemented with clay.

M. Pallas leaves the antiquities to give an account of the plants which he found at different places in the Chersonnesus, and to describe the mountains and their productions. All these objects are particularly noticed, and offer observations equally new and interesting to the natural historian, the geographer, and the antiquary. If our limits will permit, we shall from this portion select some specimens of the author's labours: at this time we shall confine ourselves to a few short observations on the peninsula of the Crimea.

The population was formerly estimated at about 500,000; but in 1778 more than 30,000 Christians, who inhabited the country between the Don and the Berda, were removed behind the sea of Asof. In the first years also of the Russian government many thousand Tartars sold their possessions, and retired to Nætolia and Romelia; so that in 1793 the population did not exceed 157,133 individuals of every age and sex. In 1800 the number was 120,000 males of every age and condition.

At the head of the Tartarian clergy is a mufti, who has the rank of a Russian general, and whose annual stipend amounts to 2000 roubles: a kadi esker effendi and five ulemas form, with him, a kind of synod. The subaltern clergy are formed by the

cadis of villages, the chadyps, and the imans. Under the name of *mullah*, or *mollah*, are comprehended all those devoted to the study of the Koran, even though they should not be imans.

The food of the Tartars consists of rice and meat, mixed and prepared in different ways. They eat mutton, goats' and horses' flesh, either boiled or roasted. Beef, on the contrary, is very uncommon. The common drink is cheese mixed with water; and they prepare, with water and the flour of the millet seed, a very inebriating kind of beer. Brandy is very common; and they obtain it from different fruits, particularly prunes.

In a particular section the author describes the present state of the Crimea, and the means of œconomically meliorating that country. The whole of this is uninteresting to the English reader, but truly merits the attention of the Russian government. In the following sections, he treats of the methods of bruising the corn by means of horses, which is represented in the thirteenth vignette; of the cultivation of the vine in the Crimea, with the means of destroying the noxious insects; of the fruit-gardens resembling those of Europe; of the culture of trees and shrubs, the plants subservient to domestic œconomy and to the arts. Among the dyeing plants, we find in the Crimea the madder, the woad, the greening weed, and the archil. The carthamus, or the bastard saffron, succeeds very well in the gardens; and the true oriental saffron might probably be cultivated with advantage.

The race of horses might be meliorated; but they want good stallions. The breed of sheep is excellent, and furnishes a considerable object of attention. They export annually more than 30,000 grey fleeces, and from 50 to 60,000 black ones. These are exported from Perekop, and the greater number are sent to Poland. The salt lakes afford a considerable quantity of common salt, which requires a further purification. The whole export trade from the Crimea does not exceed 4 or 500,000 roubles annually, and the imports amount to from 3 to 400,000.

The volume is concluded by the author's return from the Crimea to Petersburg. He describes many medals which he procured on the road. At Pultawa he visited the monument erected in memory of the defeat of Charles XII. which consists of a large plate of brass fixed to the tower of the church, on which the battle is represented.

Our limits will not admit of a very extensive specimen; but we shall select some account of the country and the climate of the Crimea.

‘ Nothing can be conceived more agreeable than the prospect of the mountains, and of a country interspersed with hills and woods, occasionally divided by a mœandering river; in short, of objects recommended by their novelty, after a long and te-

dious journey over sandy plains, without variety and without interest. Independently of these attractions, the mountainous region of the Crimea offers, in the advanced season of autumn, successive allurements of different kinds. The reader, after this, may easily fancy the agreeable surprise we experienced, on reaching the charming valley of the river of Salgir, in seeing at a distance a still more mountainous country.

‘ The agreeable and often warm weather, which we experienced during the month of November, and which continued through that of December, enabled me to collect, at even this advanced season, seeds of peculiar rarity, and gave me hopes, from the remains of the plants, of the successful continuation of my botanic labours. My infirm health could alone confine my zeal; and it had suffered so much in my autumnal journey, that I could not often venture abroad, and I was obliged to confine myself, during the months of December and January, to re-establish it.

‘ The winter, and, in general, the temperature of the peninsula of the Crimea, is unequal and variable, either from the topography of the country, or the various interchange of hill and valley in its mountainous parts. I shall give a general account of it in my view of the physical relations of the Crimea, and shall confine myself at present to speak of the winter of 1793-4. During the first fortnight of November, the weather was fine, dry, and agreeable, accompanied by a constant east wind, which brings with it a suitable temperature. Some days were so hot that we could not mount the hills without great perspiration, though a little frost had occurred the September preceding, and some snow had fallen on the mountains, which disappeared almost as soon as the hoar frost which before covered them. After the middle of November we felt some cold, accompanied by snow, which continued with cloudy days uninterruptedly till the 27th. On this day, at eight in the evening, a slight earthquake was felt at Bachtschisarai, Karassubasar, and Perekop, not comparable to that which occurred in the year 1790 over the whole southern coast of the peninsula. On the same day the wind changed to the south-west, and we saw flocks of from ten to twenty couple of bustards file down from the mountains, driven probably by the snow which fell on the *step* and the peninsula of Kertsch. On the 28th it began to thaw, with a continual tempest from the Archipelago, alternating with rain; and the rills from the mountains, increased to torrents, fell with considerable noise. In December there were many clear days; but in the north, in the direction of the *step* (the sandy plain) of Perekop, where the view is not bounded, black clouds of snow, such as we see here (in St. Petersburg) in the clearest days of autumn and winter.

‘ The cold returned on the first days of January, 1794, to

which, on the 5th, snow succeeded, which covered the plain to a considerable height, and continued to the end of the month; an appearance so uncommon, that the inhabitants celebrated it with races of sledges—an entertainment with which they were sufficiently satiated in the severe winters of 1798—1800. At the beginning of February the thaw was complete, and the swallows appeared on the 6th. On the 8th a cold wind from the east, announced by a frost, superceded that from the south-west, to which the thaw was owing; but, about the 12th, in the last quarter of the moon, a little rain brought on fair weather—so that on the 13th and 14th, when the sun shone out warm, we saw in the gardens and the most clement situations on the mountains different varieties of the crocus and the sweet violet beginning to bloom, the buds of the *Adonis vera*, *hyacinthus ramosus*, and *ornithogalum pilosum*, appearing above ground, and the labours of the plough commencing. On the 16th, however, at noon, a north-east wind suddenly occurred, and brought back the frost; and on the 18th, with the new moon, a violent tempest from some point of the east continued with uninterrupted fury till the renewal of the following moon, which so much retarded the progress of vegetation, by its cold and dryness, that the cornel tree began only to bloom in March; while in other years its buds had begun to expand in February.

‘ In spite of the rigour of winter, the cold was not beyond the tenth degree of congelation of Réaumur’s thermometer. Though ice was occasionally observed on the Bosphorus, there were times when it was perfectly free. On the contrary, the loose ice from the sea of Asof continued during the whole winter and through a great part of the spring, which occasioned a coldness during the season; the same effect that the ice produces at Petersburg from the lakes of Ladoga and Onega, though the rivers on the south of Russia are early free from ice.’

Any adequate specimen of the natural history of the Crimea would detain us, we perceive, too long; so that we shall wait the appearance of the translation, when, in a more extensive space, we may follow the author more closely. We must not, however, leave the present work without further notice of the embellishments, which have so greatly enhanced the price.

We have said that the plates are designed to resemble coloured drawings; but, though splendid and brilliant, they want softness, and that accurate representation of natural objects which can alone render them truly valuable. The contours of the mountains are often stiff straight lines; and the gullies formed by the running waters represent any thing but what is intended. Some of the mountains must, however, be excepted, particularly those near the sea. Daniell’s beautiful views of Calcutta

and its neighbourhood seem to have been M. Geissler (the artist)'s prototype; but he falls infinitely below the object of his imitation.

Among the plates, one of the best is the first, representing the gate of Perekop; and the fourth, a view of the port of Achi-tiar, or Sewastopol. The plates of natural history represent the camel of the Crimea with two bunches; the grey sheep of the Crimea; and the ewe with grey silvery wool. The other plates represent different dresses of the country; and these, with the features of the men and women, appear to be peculiar and truly characteristic. Among the vignettes, we may particularly distinguish those which represent the sledge employed to bring wood from the steep mountains, the plough, and other instruments of husbandry in use among the Tartars.

ART. XI.—*Mémoires sur l'Égypte, &c.*

Memoirs on Egypt, &c. (Continued from Vol. XXXV. p. 515).

WE did not pursue this work in our last Appendix, as we had reason to think a translation of the second would follow that of the first volume, noticed in the XXXth of our Journal, page 31; and the claims of foreign authors are so numerous as to allow of every reduction of labour. In our XXXVth volume we scarcely proceeded beyond the 'History,' for the reasons there assigned. We must now, therefore, hasten more rapidly; for, since that period, we have received a third and fourth volume of this collection.

'A Report on the Moristan, or the Hospital of Cairo, addressed to the General in Chief Bonaparte. By M. Desgenettes.' It was among the benevolent actions of Bonaparte, in Egypt, to reform the hospitals, and give assistance to the afflicted. The account of this worthy physician is a very gloomy one. An hospital in Egypt offered no means of cure; it was an asylum only for the diseased; a house to cover them, and a scanty diet, were all the aids that it afforded.

'A Continuation of the Extracts of the Geography of Abd-ér-Rachyd-el-Bakouy on the Description of Egypt. By M. J. J. Marcel.' We cannot abridge these extracts; but to us they appear very interesting, though on subjects of no general concern. It is singular that M. Marcel interprets the surname of Alexander Dou-l-garnéyn, 'with two horns,' from the extent of his empire from east to west, forgetting his favourite legend of Jupiter Ammon. In this abstract, and in the notes, there are numerous illustrations of the Pentateuch, particularly those parts which relate to Moses and Joseph.

'A Report made to Bonaparte in the Name of the Commission respecting a Plan of Organisation for a Civil Hospital at Cairo.' The whole plan is at an end, and an abstract would be useless.

'A historical and geographical Relation of a Voyage from Constantinople to Trebifond, by Sea, in the fifth Year of the Republic. By M. Beauchamp.'

We found this memoir very interesting, particularly in a geographic view. In announcing the first reading of M. Beauchamp's Inquiries, in our XXXth volume, we mentioned the correction of M. Bonne's error, who extended Trebifond five degrees and a half into Asia; the remains probably of Ptolemy's mistake, who carried it much further. Our author met with a singular difficulty very early. On applying for a firman, the Porte could not find a precedent: M. Beauchamp pointed out that of Tournefort, which was literally copied. At Trebifond, therefore, the inconvenience was first felt. He was compelled to botanise, though without any knowledge of plants; and he could not make astronomic observations, because this was not consistent with his firman. These difficulties were, however, in time, conquered; and the longitude of Trebifond, from Paris, was found to be $37^{\circ} 18' 15''$; from Constantinople, $10^{\circ} 4' 15''$. From Trebifond to the embouchure of the Olafis is 120 miles. Trebifond retains little evidence of its former magnificence; and, from the remains, we should not expect it to have been the residence of the Grecian emperors. It is built on the shore of the Black Sea, on the side of a hill, in a delightful situation. Its shape is an irregular square; and it is surrounded with walls, now in a ruinous state; but the houses only occupy the portion next the shore: the space above, within the walls, is allotted to gardens. The commerce is languid, and consists in copper, nuts, linens, and Georgian slaves. Our author proceeds to Platana, the road of Trebifond, in which the largest ships anchor. The whole coast is represented as delightful, with an interchange of hill and valley, diversified with country seats and woods. The climate was not hot: in the height of summer, there was snow on the mountains; and the thermometer (we suppose Réaumur's) was not higher than 20° (77° of Farenheit). The whole of this coast is however moist and foggy.

Our author coasts the southern and western part of the sea only in his way to Constantinople, and first anchors in the road of Vona, which he finds to be in latitude $41^{\circ} 6' 35''$; the longitude $8^{\circ} 55' 10''$ from Constantinople. Unich is on the same coast, still further to the west, in a charming position.

'It is situated, like Trebifond, on the side of a hill; and the houses are interspersed with gardens. The town faces the east,

and extends to the cape, enjoying the advantage of a little river, whose banks terminate in hills, adorned with trees. I would avoid the suspicion of an enthusiastic admiration of distant countries; but I own that large forests, on the banks of the sea, have something peculiarly striking. This perhaps is owing to my sight having been almost always fixed on deserts. Persia, the famous empire of Persia, has neither woods nor rivers, at least in the northern parts, through which I have travelled 300 leagues. I do not remember to have seen a tree, of any considerable girth, in any of the Grecian islands on which I have landed.

We pass over many astronomic and geographic remarks of less moment, till we arrive at Sinope, a town built on the isthmus of a peninsula, whose longitude is $6^{\circ} 5' 30''$ from Constantinople; $32^{\circ} 41' 45''$ from Paris, east. The latitude is $42^{\circ} 2' 7''$. The land trends, from these computations, nearly a degree of latitude more than geographers have allowed. The width of the sea is, therefore, considerably contracted from Cape Vona to the sea of Asof, a circumstance hitherto unsuspected.

This city is surrounded by walls, with a castle of a more modern date, built by the Genoese. A port is constructed from the ruins of temples and palaces. On every side we see marble and granite columns, architraves, &c. I observed on the length of an ancient cornice, mixed with the other ruins of which the castle is formed, a Greek inscription, which I shall not copy in this report.

We remarked on a wall, near the sea, a relievo well preserved, representing a man reclined on a couch, with a vase in his hand. A woman, naked, is sitting at his feet, holding also a vase. At a distance is a child, drawing water from an open vessel, of an elegant form. By the side of the woman is a half-circular table, with three feet. This relic is about fourteen or fifteen inches high, and two feet wide.

At Amassero (Amestiro) other remains of antiquity are found, which our limits will not permit us to describe. The longitude of Amassero is $29^{\circ} 4'$ east, and latitude $41^{\circ} 46' 8''$. We shall conclude this memoir with noticing one singular circumstance.

It has been remarked by Buache that the traverses of the Black Sea, from south to north, or north-east, make the distances of land too great. On the contrary, those from the south and south-west render them too short. From this it is probable that a current runs from the sea of Asof; and indeed this might be supposed from the body of water poured down from the Don, and the other rivers supplied by the mountains of Caucasus. A fact adduced by our author will illustrate this subject.

‘The boats of Trebifond have a commercial connexion; but they do not go up on the eastern side. They proceed to Sinope, and thence to Balaklava. Do they endeavour to avoid the currents from the sea of Asof? or do they find others at Sinope? They say it is the route; but, as they return by the same road, I can find a reason sufficiently probable for their conduct. As they sail without a chart, they seldom go far from the coast. They have a bad compass, the needle of which is formed of two pieces of steel, forming a lozenge. They know from habit the direction of their course; but, as they do not estimate it by the log, they might make unfortunate mistakes were they to go at large. On arriving at Sinope, they cut the Black Sea in its shortest direction; and, however little the wind, soon see Cape Karadje, in the Crimea. It may be asked why they do not coast from Trebifond to Anapa, and thence to the Crimea? I have no answer to give.’

‘Memoir on the geographic Position of Cairo, and many Points of Lower Egypt. By M. Nouet.’ This very laboured and satisfactory memoir we need not abridge. The results are generally known from the very accurate maps of Lower Egypt, corrected from M. Nouet’s observations.

‘Meteorological Observations, communicated by M. Nouet to M. Desgenettes, for the Purpose of a Physical and Medical History of the Army of the East.’ These observations are made in succession, at different places; from Alexandria to Cairo; thence to Damietta, Belbeys, &c.; afterwards again at Cairo. At Alexandria, we find, on the 9th Thermidor (July 27), the thermometer at 24° (86° F.); at Belbeys, in the morning, we see it, 6 Nivose (Dec. 26), so low as 2° ($36\frac{1}{2}$ F.); but, at noon, about 15° or 16° (68° F.). At Cairo it is uniformly warmer; and on 9 and 10 of Thermidor, an. 7 (July 27 and 28, 1799), it was, in the afternoon, at 31° , near 103 of Fahrenheit.

‘Observations on the Weight of the Air, the Direction of the Winds, and the State of the Heavens. By M. Coutelle.’ These observations were continued from 22 Frimaire, an. 8, to 24 Nivose following (from about Dec. 12 to Jan. 12 following). The barometer was from 27° $11\frac{1}{2}$ lines to 28° 6 lines; the winds variable; a little rain fell twice.

‘Report on the Correspondence of Styles adopted by different Nations. By M. Nouet.’ We scarcely see the connexion of this memoir with the Egyptian campaign or conquest, except so far as regards the Coptic style. Their year does not greatly differ from the Julian, but their æra dates from the persecution of Diocletian, and the first day of their year is September 9. We could have wished that these volumes had been more exclusively confined to Egypt.

‘The geographic Position of different points of Egypt

determined by M. Nouet, and communicated to M. Jacolin, Director of the Geographic Engineers.' These tables also will not require any notice, since we have the result in the late maps.

'Astronomic Observations made in Higher Egypt to fix the Position of several Spots, and to determine the Direction of the Nile from Syene to Cairo. By M. Nouet.' This article also requires no particular notice.

'Memoir on the Sands of the Desert. By M. L. Costaz.' What may be called the physical constitution of the moving sands, which in mobility almost emulate water, and 'which are so dry you would almost call them wet,' is singularly curious. They are wholly quartzose, and of a dead white. The particles are so small as to accommodate them to every variation of elevation, and, by moon-light, their resemblance to snow is peculiarly striking: the difference is scarcely perceptible. The grains are transparent, and very round, of the diameter of nearly a millimeter. M. Costaz describes the sand-hills, with their formation. Sand, driven forward by the wind, falls on the leeward side of any obstacle, and gradually accumulates. At the foot of the sandy mountains, pure water may be expected, as the saline particles are separated by filtering through the sand above.

'Notice annexed to a Plan of Alexandria. By M. Le Père.' This information is chiefly designed to elucidate the plan, which comprehends also the harbour. It appears to have been executed with great diligence and judgement.

'Abstract of a Memoir on the Méqyas of Reoudah. By M. Le Père. The Méqyas is the famous Nilometer, from which it appears that the Nile has not varied for more than two thousand years. The sterility of Egypt is owing to the vexatious impositions of successive despots: and, in better hands, the country may resume its former fertility.

'Memoir on the Canal of Alexandria. By MM. Lancret and Cabrol, engineers of Bridges and High Roads.'

This famous canal has been traced by the attention and address of these authors, and their description of the course and extent of this vast work is highly interesting. We cannot follow it minutely, or notice the improvements which the author proposes in the repairs. There seem to have been two canals; this which our author has traced, and another which conducted the waters of the Nile on the side of the lake Mareotis, before the time of Alexander. It is evident that a great part of the country on the right side of the canal was in high cultivation, as well as that there were two kinds of water of different qualities brought into the city, which were seemingly discharged in different quarters. The whole of this subject is well explained, from a comparison of the descriptions of ancient historians and geographers, par-

particularly Strabo and Arian. The canal of Alexandria is of peculiar importance, as connected with that of Suez, and as forming a communication between the Nile and the Red Sea. Our author shows, and it is of consequence in the consideration of the subject, that, when conducted with proper views, every step in the repair would be of value, and fully answer the expense. Under the Turkish dominion, however, every kind of attempt is highly improbable.

‘The Fables of Logman, surnamed the Sage, an Arabian Edition, with a French Translation, and preceded by an Account of that celebrated Fabulist. By M. J. J. Marcel.’ The Fables of Logman still retain in Arabia the highest credit. The apologues of Logman and Pilpay are the only original ones; for Æsop, Phædrus, and La Fontaine, if Æsop ever existed, were copyists only. The apologue was the sole mode in which wisdom could be conveyed to despotic monarchs, whose will was their only law; and this mode of writing was early cultivated in the seat of despotism, the East. It is, however, the object of M. Marcel to show that Æsop and Logman were the same persons, since whatever is related of the former is true of the latter. Logman was an Abyssinian slave; and *Λογμανος* is only slightly changed from *Αβυσσινος*: he lived nearly about the æra of David, or of Cosroës, of the Persians, while the supposed date of Æsop’s age is five hundred years later; yet the only remaining anecdotes of the latter are preserved by oriental authors as occurring to the former. The celebrated poet Gelal-êd-dyn, surnamed *êl-Balkhy*, relates the circumstance of Logman having been falsely accused of eating figs, and having cleared himself, as well as convicted his accusers by warm water. In his didactic poem, entitled *Methnawy*, he adds the following apostrophe, or moral:—

‘O you! you who cover yourselves in this world with the garments of an honest man, and conceal the worst vices in your heart, when at the day of judgement you drink the hot burning water, what you have concealed with so much care shall appear to the world, and the esteem you have acquired by your hypocrisy shall be changed to shame and confusion.’ This is perhaps a little too much in the style of modern fanatics or spiritualisers.

Sâdi, in his *Bostân* and his *Gulistân*, reports many traits of Logman, and another occurs in a Persian poem, styled *Nigaristan*, both of which we shall transcribe.

‘A caravan, with which Logman travelled, was plundered by robbers, who were moved neither by the tears nor the lamentations of the merchants they had robbed. One of them said to Logman, You should give these robbers lessons of wisdom and good conduct, that, moved by your advice and remonstrances, they might restore us a portion of our goods, and repair, at least, a part of the mischief they have occasioned us.’

"It would be much worse," rejoined Logman, "to prostitute lessons of wisdom to villains equally incapable of comprehending and believing them. No file can clean iron of its rust, when that rust has wholly consumed it."

Again — 'Logman's master having one day given him a bitter apple to eat, he devoured it without repugnance. Astonished at this act of obedience, his master asked him how he could eat a fruit so disagreeable to the taste. "You have given me many sweets," replied the sage; "and it would be surprising if I could not eat the only bitter fruit that I ever received from you." An admirable lesson! It is a practical maxim, similar to the truly pious reflexion of Job, which *every heart in pain* should remember — "Have I received good from the hands of God, and shall I not receive evil?" — We shall only add one other maxim preserved in the Koran.

'And Logman said to his son, whom he was instructing — "O my son! associate no one with God; for to give God an equal is the blackest crime."

'Observations on the Diseases, and particularly the Dysentery, which reigned in Fructidor, An VI (August and December 1798), in the Army of the East. By M. Bruant.' Our author's account of the dysentery is very satisfactory; and we may add, for a future purpose, that the ophthalmia sometimes alternated with this disease, and very often relieved it. The description is clear and accurate; the mode of treatment judicious. M. Bruant generally began with an emetic, whatever were the period of the disorder, unless the weakness was very considerable. It was occasionally repeated, and followed by an active purgative, which generally relieved. Afterwards a slighter laxative, such as rhubarb, with cream of tartar, terminated the complaint. Opium was injurious, except given with, or soon followed by, a laxative. When joined with putrid fever, the bark was administered in small doses, frequently repeated. When the dysentery was more obstinate, tonics, with gentle evacuates, and occasional opiates to allay irritation, were useful. Blisters to the legs seemed sometimes to calm the irregular motions of the bowels.

'Essay on the physical and medical Topography of Damietta. By M. Savaresi.'

'Observations on the Diseases which reigned at Damietta, in the first semestre of the Year VII. By the same.'

'Description and Treatment of the Ophthalmia of Egypt. By the same.'

These articles are so closely connected, that they must be considered together. Damietta, situate on the Lake Menzaleh, and in the neighbourhood of marshes produced

by the inundations, is very unhealthy. The waters are brackish, the plants salt; and, from habit, the natives eat large quantities of salt with their viands. The country is alluvial; but the author finds, or fancies, some volcanic productions; in which he is certainly deceived. The inhabitants, living in dirt and smoke, experience a premature old age, and have every disease which filth and inactivity can engender. Their chief complaints are intermittents and dysentery. The diseases of the army at this period were diarrhœa, dysentery, ophthalmia, and tertians. But the most interesting part of the second memoir is a description of a very severe typhus, attended with petechiæ, anthraxes, and buboes. Our author's mode of treatment was by camphorated sudorific potions, *nitrated* sudorific ptisans, and clysters. We see no hint of either bark or wine. The account of the ophthalmia is in no respect important. M. Savaresi attributes it to the calcareous and aluminous dust; and has blinded dogs, by throwing it into their eyes, to prove his hypothesis; yet, among the preservative means, he directs the cold of the evening to be avoided. There can be little doubt of the ophthalmia being a feverish epidemic, as we shall have frequent opportunities of showing.

‘Physical or Medical Topography of *Old Cairo*. By M. Renati.’ This memoir is written with singular elegance and spirit; but it contains little that is new, or that can be conveniently selected. Cairo is situated in a salubrious spot, and would be highly populous, were not the numbers greatly lessened by the plague, the small-pox, and the rickets. This last disease is a singular one, when every circumstance is considered; for few traces exist of its effects on adults. It comes on at about two years of age—and so long the mother usually suckles—and appears to be soon fatal. The Egyptians in general are temperate: smoking is their only excess. M. Renati attributes the ophthalmia also to the dust; but recommends, as a preservative, lying with the head warm.

‘Notes on the Diseases prevalent in Frimaire, An VII, collected in the Military Hospital of Old Cairo. By M. Barbes.’ The diseases seemed to arise from the fogs, and the great difference of temperature between the days and nights. They were chiefly colds, dysenteries, and fevers. In the dysenteries, a blister to the abdomen was found of great service.

‘Fragments of a Collection of Medical Observations made in the Army of the East. By M. Desgenettes.’ These fragments chiefly relate to the appearance and progress of the plague. Here, at least, Bonaparte acted with propriety; and M. Desgenettes records a history of his conduct; but

this circumstance was prior to the campaign of Syria. When it was objected, that burning the clothes would be expensive, he replied, 'I am come here to fix the attention, and carry back the interests, of Europe to the centre of the old world, and not to collect riches.' Some remarks on the appearance and progress of the dysentery, and other complaints, are subjoined.

'The Answer of the supreme Divan of Cairo to M. Desgenettes,' who communicated some remarks on the nature and treatment of the small-pox, is curious. It is in a strain of grateful acknowledgement and eastern hyperbole. 'The people offer numerous prayers, in gratitude for your kindness: they praise and value, with justice, the extent of the service you have done them: they acknowledge that profound learning, the most enlightened science, and excellent views in the art of healing, *belong to the French alone*. A proof of this is your work.'—The 'people' had unfortunately not heard a word on the subject; and, if they had, would have received it with the most listless apathy.

RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

Nouveau Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle, &c. A new Dictionary of Natural History, applied to the Arts, chiefly to Agriculture and to rural and domestic Economy. In about twenty Volumes, large 8vo. Adorned with Plates. Paris. Deterville.—We mean at present only to announce this dictionary, of which, in fact, we have seen only the first *livraison*, consisting of three volumes, which comes down to *Cheval*. It is a work of the first importance, and designed as a complete Encyclopædia of natural history. The work of Valmont de Bomère, even in his latest editions, is imperfect, and does not contain the application of natural history either to the arts or to agriculture. In this new dictionary, it is observed that readers of every age and class will find suitable information; and at the end will be given generic characters of every branch of natural history, illustrated by a suitable number of plates. The number of volumes cannot yet be exactly ascertained. It will consist of not less than twenty volumes, as it is determined not to mutilate any subject by contracting it; and it will be published in *livraisons* of three volumes every three months. Considerable advantages are offered to subscribers. We have only to add the names of the chief authors; which we shall do, by observing, that it had the assistance of Sonnini and Virey, in what relates to man, quadrupeds, birds, and cetacea; of Parmentier, Huzard, and Sonnini, on the veterinary art and domestic economy; of Bosch for fish, reptiles, molusca, and worms; of Olivier and Latreille for insects; of Chaptal, Cels and Parmentier, Thoms, Dutour and Bosch, for botany, with its application to the arts, to agriculture, gardening, rural and domestic economy; to Chaptal and Patrin for mineralogy, geology, meteorology, and natural philosophy.

Des Végétaux Résineux, &c. On resinous Vegetables, both indigenous and exotic; or a complete Description of Trees and Shrubs, which produce Resins, with the Processes for extracting them, a particular Indication of their Properties and Uses in Medicine, Pharmacy, the Veterinary Art, Painting, &c. By F. S. Duplessy. Four Volumes. 8vo. Paris.—

This ample title-page explains sufficiently the object of the author, who seems to have collected all that is at present known on the subject, and to have spared no pains in a very diffuse wordy illustration. The first part comprises a description of the plants which produce camphor, and the history of all the vegetables which contain this peculiar substance; among which are hyssop and rosemary. The mode of preparing and preserving it is next added, with its medicinal and œconomic uses. Camphor, however, is scarcely a resin.

The second part embraces the turpentine trees, including the balm of Guiana; and the third, the aromatic and the poisonous plants, including the styrax, the liquid amber, the benzoin; but more particularly the medicinal resins. The last part contains the plants from which indigo, varnish, elastic gum, and those plants which afford the resinous juice, useful in painting, dying, and the other arts. To this is joined a list of synonyms, the common terms in seven languages, cultivation, &c. The whole is concluded by a memoir, by Juache, on the *modus operandi* of resins on the animal œconomy.

*Récueil de Lettres de la Famille de Salomon Gesner. Collection of Letters of the Family of Solomon Gesner. 2 Vols. 8vo.—*An English version of the works of Gesner has been some time in our hands; but we cannot delay noticing the present publication. These letters were first published in German, but were not originally written for the press. They consist of familiar conversations between a father and a son, on the subject of the fine arts, and the studies necessary for those who cultivate them, particularly painters. In these letters, Gesner appears the artist, the man, the father, and the friend; and this circumstance has induced the editor to introduce letters from other parts of the family. Gesner has left a great number of designs, of studies from nature, of compositions of different kinds, more or less finished, which form, with the choice of his best pictures, a collection which his family value as the most precious portion of their inheritance. It is, however, determined to engrave the whole compilation; and, for this purpose, the two last volumes of the complete collection of the works of Gesner, in 4to. will be published, on which he was employed for the two last years of his life. His family possess also

many designs, destined by himself to form the plates and vignettes, with which he meant to adorn them. These designs will be engraved, without any alteration, by able artists; and those still wanting to complete the work will be executed by his son, now in this country, in concert with the best engravers. The conditions for the subscription will soon be published. The letters are followed by a list of Gesner's pictures, and a catalogue of his engravings in *aqua fortis*.

Cours pratique de Commerce, &c. A practical Course of Commerce, for the Use of Farmers, Artificers, and Merchants; or the Application of Mathematics to the elementary Operations of Commerce or Circulation, as an Introduction to a Course of banking Operations: by J. Neveu. 2 Vols. 8vo.

—If France be not a commercial nation, neither the present authors, nor the chief consul, are in fault. They talk learnedly on it: but a single quotation, from M. Taleyrand, shows the baseless fabric of their vision. *Il faut de l'argent — beaucoup d'argent: mais, hélas! il n'y en a point.* Our author has already published a work on Banking, which we have not seen. The present volumes are not very interesting or useful. After a definition of commerce in general, and its various branches—remarks on papers of credit and the balance of commerce, followed by historical considerations on the commerce of nations, particularly that of France, and on public or national finances—he gives a general and historic introduction to the mathematics, and explains the chronologic terms of *cycles, epacts, &c.* not forgetting *Sunday letters*. Some useful tables, with an *approximating* 'Price Current,' are subjoined. In the second volume, he adds an account of the different natural productions, either in their unformed or manufactured state, with an historic essay on agriculture and gardening, as an equipoise perhaps to the epacts. The volume concludes with a tariff of prices current at Paris.

Journal d'un Voyage en Allemagne, &c. Journal of a Tour in Germany, in the Year 1773, by G. A. H. Guibert, Author of a general Essay on Tactics: a posthumous Work published by his Widow, and preceded by an historical Account of the Life of the Author, by F. E. Toulangeon. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris.—We had intended to have followed our author at some length, and to have made some extensive extracts from his accounts of Frederic and Joseph II; but the want of room, and the remark that we necessarily offered of the portraits being tinged with a little prejudice and disappointment, prevented our extending the article, as we designed: yet of Joseph little is truly known, but that he meant well, was

enterprising, and unfortunate. Let us, however, speak of the author, from the '*Notice Historique*.'

'There are few who knew M. Guibert, but must recollect his wit, his vivacity, and his talents. The Essay on military Tactics is a master-piece of judgement, of information, and experience. He promised every-thing: but a premature death put an end to the sanguine expectations of his friends. Those acquainted with him will be grateful to the biographer, for having preserved the portrait, in which we perceive no artful glare, no meretricious colouring: those who have only seen him in his works, will be pleased with a nearer view of the man himself.

'His Travels are fragments only, thrown together at the end of the day, while the author was waiting for a moment of more leisure, to put the last hand to these animated sketches, and give the finishing, which haste would not at first permit. Thirty years have now elapsed: but, during his life, this leisure was still wanting: yet, the justness of the remarks, the profound knowledge displayed in military affairs, the spirited pictures drawn of monarchs then alive, whom, from his rank and his reputation, he had the honour of observing at no great distance, render these fragments truly interesting. They appear, as they were written, in the style of a journal, with those little negligences which characterise the soldier and the philosopher, traveling for instruction. He stops only when striking objects present themselves, when useful facts, or important matters, offer. He speaks, for example, particularly of the military establishments of the princes of the empire; runs over, with enthusiasm, the scene of the seven years' war. He particularly rests, to notice the Prussian army; and talks, with freedom, of what concerns its general and monarch—the great Frederic. He then traces the chief traits of the military organisation of former times, and of the Croatsians, those descendents of the ancient Daci, once so formidable to Rome.'—We mean not, by this short account, to preclude ourselves from the privilege of again noticing this volume, and extracting some lively passages. We must however add, that a little personal pique seems to have guided the pen, in tracing the character of Frederic, who, if not a Solomon, was at least an extraordinary man, M. Guibert, however, paints him, as a man without principle, without character, without sensibility; and even denies that he was a great general. This description is, nevertheless, professedly drawn from the accounts of Quintus Julius (M. Guiscard) and the abbé Battiani: but they betray some little partiality, perhaps from disappointment. The author of the Essay on Tactics, a work of no vulgar credit, was received as a common stranger; and, at the review in Silesia,

the king affected to talk to him only of his tragedy of the 'Constable.'

Lettres de Paciaudi, &c. The Letters of Paciaudi to Count Caylus: with an Appendix, Notes, and an Essay on the Life of the Italian Antiquary, published by A. Seryes. 8vo. Paris.—We notice the letters of Paciaudi, as suitable companions for those of the abbé Barthelemy, which we lately reviewed, though we think these before us much more interesting. The studies of both antiquaries are the same, the manner of writing similar, and the objects not very different. Paciaudi may even be considered as one of the authors of the Collection of Antiquities, published by the count; for these letters show that he furnished a great part of the materials of count Caylus's work. Independently of this merit, the general reader will find his curiosity gratified by confidential information, and by the historic and literary details which these letters contain.

Œuvres complètes de Fréret, &c. Complete Works of Fréret, Secretary of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. With a Plan of the Battle of Thymbraea, 20 Vols. 12mo.—This complete edition of many valuable dissertations, already published in the successive volumes of the Academy, will be very acceptable to the philological reader. The author's character, as well as the value of his works, are sufficiently known; and we need only add the copy of the titles of the essays. These are, 1. The Eloges, written by the secretary; 2. General Observations on ancient History; 3. Historical Inquiries on the Greeks and Romans; 4. Historic Inquiries on the ancient Nations of Asia; 5. On the Language of the Chinese; 6. Examination of the Discoveries of the Ancients in Arts and Sciences; 7. Religion of the ancient Nations; Mythology, or the Religion of the Greeks; Religion of the ancient European Nations; 8. A critical Examination of the Apologists of the Christian Religion; 9. Letters of Thrasybulus to Leucippe,

L'Esprit, &c. Genius: a posthumous Work, by M. de la Beaumelle. 12mo. Paris.—The title of the volume is not unsuitable to the name of the author. It indeed resembles his other works, and is lively, but superficial. The attacks of Voltaire raised Beaumelle to the honour of being extensively known: but, to be attacked by that sultan who 'bore no brother near his throne,' will now convey no disgrace.

Notice sur la Vie et les Ouvrages du Général d'Arcon, &c. An Account of the Life and Writings of General d'Arcon: by Girou Chatrans, 12mo. Paris.—The life of general d'Ar-

con must be interesting, not from his more active exertions, his conquests, or his manœuvres. He planned in silence; and much of the success of the French, in the first campaigns, was said to be owing to his arrangements. He was the contriver of the floating batteries which attacked Gibraltar, and loudly complained of the precipitation of the general, who hurried them into action before they were complete. We remember to have seen the plans; and, had all his contrivances been effectually executed, they would, we think, have escaped destruction. The various communications which the author has received from d'Arcon's most intimate friends, fully authenticate the account here given.

GERMANY.

Synopsis Methodica Fungorum, &c. Methodic Synopsis of Fungi, containing an Enumeration of all the Species hitherto discovered; with short Descriptions, the Synonyms, and select Observations. By D. C. Persoon, Parts I and II. 8vo. Gœttingen.—The class cryptogamia was little attended to, till within these few years; and it is with pleasure we see a work so extensive and accurate, on this neglected subject, as the present. We formerly noticed the author's 'Tentamen Dispositionis Methodicæ,' which is the basis of the present volume. The knowledge of the cryptogamic plants, it has been said, is alone sufficient to employ the whole life of a botanist; and the present work shows that one division of that class only, the fungi, contains, in reality, more species, than all the cryptogamiæ hitherto discovered.

The species, noticed in the present work, amount to 1526, observed only in Germany, England, and France. The mushrooms of the rest of Europe, of America, the Cape, and Australasia, are scarcely known. The author has admitted only the species which he has himself observed, or of which he was able to procure exact and authentic figures and descriptions. He has even omitted some, respecting which he expects to receive more accurate accounts. The introduction is on the principles of the mythologic philosophy, and is followed by a nomenclature of the classes, orders, and species.—We regret that the work is not concluded by a general table of the names of the species and synonyms, with a list of the doubtful species omitted.

Wildenow and J. J. Bernhards zwei Botanische Abhandlungen, &c. Two botanical Memoirs on some rare Species of Fern, on the Asplenium, and some analogous Species: by MM. Wildenow and Bernhard. 8vo. Erfurt.—M. Wildenow, who is now publishing a new and very complete edition of Linnaeus's Vegetable System, communicated to the

Academy of Sciences, at Mentz, a memoir, containing some general observations on the cryptogamiæ, and on the definition of this class. He offers a new arrangement, which, for reasons just alleged, we cannot enlarge on, or on the reasons which led him to differ from Linnæus.

In the second memoir, M. Bernhard examines some ferns, which he obtained from the herbarium of Forster, by means of M. Sprengel. He defines the species of asplenium, from the envelopes opening on one side only; and this character leads him to consider the blechnum, the woodwardia, pteris, lonchitis, and darea, as varieties alone. He admits a new species, which he calls gymnopteris, which is distinguished from the asplenium, by a total want of envelopes. M. Swartz, however, considers this species, as a true hemionitis.

Dissertationes Academicæ, habitæ Upsaliæ, &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. Göttingen. — The third volume, which we have just received, reminds us of our omission of the former. They were originally published at Upsal: but the edition was sold, as soon almost as it appeared: the present is under the direction of M. Persoon. The dissertations in the two first volumes are almost exclusively botanic; the third is on subjects of zoölogy, ichthyology, ornithology, and entomology. The last subject is the principal; and fills fifteen essays, nine of which relate to the insects of Sweden, the others to some new species.

The first dissertation is ichthyologic, on the muræna and ophicto, accompanied by two plates, engraved by Ahl. The nine following essays are on Swedish insects, divided into nine sections. The number is sixty-six: but, in this place, we cannot even copy the names. The six ensuing dissertations are entitled — ‘*Novæ Insectorum Species*,’ divided into six sections: yet, to mention each of these, would be also to exceed our limits. The plates are not coloured; but are so carefully engraved, as to render colouring less necessary. We may just remark, in this place, that the author’s ‘*Prodromus Plantarum Capensium*,’ in octavo, is lately concluded, published at Copenhagen; and that the second decad of the ‘*Icones Plantarum Japonicarum*’ has appeared at Upsal.

Aufausgründe der Naturlehre, &c. Principles of Natural Philosophy: by J. T. Maier. 8vo. Göttingen. — While we so greatly want an elementary system of natural philosophy, connected equally with physical and mechanic principles, we cannot avoid noticing the present work, which, with some imperfections, combines considerable merit. It

is, in reality, rather chemical than strictly philosophic—for we find little notice of the mechanic powers, or of optics. Physical astronomy, meteorology, and the theory of the earth, are designedly omitted, as they are to form a part of a future work. In the introduction, the author speaks of the atomic and dynamic systems; in other words, of the systems of Newton and of Kant. He leans to the former, though he does not attempt to conceal its difficulties; and, in general, the work merits our commendation, for its clearness and precision. We would particularly recommend what relates to the theory of sound, to electricity, chemistry, and Galvanism.

Vom Galvanismus, &c. On Galvanism, and its Use in Medicine; with four Plates: by F. L. Augustin. 8vo. Berlin.—The idea of collecting whatever relates to the medical use of Galvanism merits our applause. The author begins with an explanation of the different opinions respecting the effects of the Galvanic fluid, and points out the diseases in which it has been considered as useful. These are asphyxia, palsy, nervous diseases from a direct astheny, weakness of sight and cataracts, deafness, loss of voice, chronic rheumatisms, tumours without inflammation, asthenic inflammations, pains in the teeth, dropsy, &c. The author requests physicians to communicate to him the result of their experience.

Handbuch zur Kenntniz und Heilung innerer Krankheiten, &c. A Manual respecting the Knowledge and Treatment of the internal Diseases of the human Body: by J. C. Starke. 2 Vols. 8vo. Iena.—The first volume, respecting the acute diseases, was published some time since. The author, whose long experience and extensive knowledge have rendered his former works truly valuable, collected in that volume an excellent stock of instruction for students and practitioners. It was received with great respect; and the present, on chronic diseases, is not less valuable. The principal subjects are colic, gravel, rheumatism, catalepsy, melancholy, epilepsy, spasm, phthisis, &c.

He promises us a very simple and successful cure of epilepsy, which he considers as hereditary, and chiefly from the constitution of the father. In the croup, he finds very good effects from the *ledum palustre*. In phthisis, he prefers the *mezereon bark* to cauteries; and gives the *lichen Islandicus* to six or seven ounces daily.

Bemerkungen auf einer Reise durch einem theil Schwedens, &c. Observations made in a Journey through Part of Sweden. By J. G. Eck, the younger. 8vo. Leipsic.—

The author, son of the celebrated Eck of Leipsic, publishes in this volume some interesting observations on one of the most fertile provinces of Sweden. Scania is hitherto little known; and our author has given us very useful information, as he has examined it with attention, in many different views.

This province, which may be styled the granary of Sweden, has near ninety square miles of surface. It contains nine cities, and its population amounts to 219,830. The climate is milder than the rest of Sweden; but the inhabitants are represented as less active than the Germans.

Lund, one of the principal cities, was ceded to Sweden in 1658; and, ten years afterwards, an academy was established in it. In the library, is a very valuable manuscript of Virgil, of the seventh or eighth century, written on parchment, with the initial letters beautifully illuminated; and, among other curiosities, is one half of the head of Descartes.—May the librarians be one half as learned and ingenious!—The appointments of the professors are paid in corn, in the proportion of one hundred tons to each. Many of them enjoy ecclesiastical benefices, which are served by curates, so that they live in an honourable retirement. Within these ten years, the critical philosophy has engaged much of the attention of the Swedes; and it is taught publicly at Lund and Upsal: this is the system of Kant. The study of national antiquities begins to spread, as well as that of mineralogy and natural history. The anti-phlogistic system of Lavoisier has many partisans.

The city of Malmoe, one of the richest in Sweden, possesses a considerable share of commerce. It contains 8000 inhabitants, and some manufactories. The city of Landskron is of little consequence, notwithstanding all the efforts of government to support its trade, and excite its industry. The isle of Hween was given to Tycho Brahe by the king of Denmark, and was the spot on which his observations were made.

M. Eck proceeds from Scania to Helsingeur, in Zealand, one of the principal cities of Sweden. It contains 5000 inhabitants, two sugar-refineries, and a manufactory of arms, which furnishes the whole Danish army. At no great distance from this city, is a beautiful royal villa of Marienlust, which has been so well described and represented by Hirschfelt, in his 'Theory of the Art of Gardens.' The work concludes with an excellent memoir on the Swedish and Danish languages, their origin, their distinguishing characters, and their analogy with the German.

Sammlung verschiedener Schriften über Schlesiens Geschichte, &c. A Collection of different Memoirs relative to the History and Constitution of Silesia. By F. G. Pachali. 8vo. Breslaw.—This author published a history of Silesia in 1790, which was very favourably received. It comprehended the period from the year 1163 to 1740. The present work, though with a different title, is a continuation of the former, and brings the history down to 1786. Many of the memoirs have, however, been previously published, though they now appear in a more correct and a more enlarged form; which renders them more generally interesting.

The first of these memoirs treats of the invasion of Silesia by the Moguls. The author endeavours to show, that at this time these Tartars, who were established between the Alsace mountains and China, carried off many of the Silesians, by whom the Siberian mines were explored.

The second memoir treats of the re-union of Silesia to Bohemia, in the fourteenth century. Silesia was once united with Poland; but the Poles not liking the Silesian princes, this latter country, by the mediation of the imperial court, was separated, and joined to Bohemia.

The third memoir contains an abstract of the history of the Silesian bishops; and the fourth, the life of John II., duke of Sagan and Glogau, who sold his duchy to Ernest, elector of Saxony.

The fifth memoir is of more general interest, comprising, 'Fragments of the physical Geography of Silesia.' By long observation, it appears, that, in Breslaw, there are two hundred clear fair days in the year, and one hundred and sixty-five cloudy, or rainy. The famous mountain Schneekoppe is 4949 Paris feet in height. The Schneecberg (snowy mountain), in the county of Glatz, is 4500; and the great Rheel, 4661 above the level of the sea. The country on the left of the Oder is the most fertile. Its extent is six hundred and fifty square miles; and the population amounts to 1,800,000, having increased, since it has been under the Prussian government, one third. The last memoir is on the history of taking the oath in Silesia; the first instance of which was in 1527, in favour of John of Luxembourg, king of Bohemia.

Geschichte der Preussischen Staaten, &c. History of the Prussian States, previous to their re-union or Monarchy. By J. F. Reitemeier. Vol. I. Frankfort.—The Prussian monarchs sprang from a younger branch of the house of Hoenzollern; and it was pleasantly said, '*voilà un cadet qui a fait une fortune.*' The history of obscure states, united by artifice, violence, and every disgraceful mean, cannot be

very interesting. The author rakes in the rubbish of antiquity, for some years previous to the eighth century, down to 1150 and 1320. Would our readers follow him? No! No! No!—The Noes have it; but he will not lose his reward.

SWEDEN.

Beitræge zur Beschreibung von Sainte Croix. Memoirs to assist a Description of Ste. Croix, accompanied with a Glance at the adjacent Islands, St. Thomas, St. John, Tortola, &c. Translated from the Danish by J. P. Oxholm. With two Charts of Ste. Croix and St. John. 8vo. Copenhagen.—The original appeared in 1794, but extended a little way only beyond its original limits. We find, in the beginning, nothing that is not common to the other tropical islands, unless it be an exception, that the slaves are usually well treated. They are lively, ingenious, and excel in various works of utility and art: the females are represented as superior in needle-work. In a fertile year, 1788, Ste. Croix produced 24,000 barrels of sugar. In 1791 there were nearly two millions of white inhabitants, 926 free negroes and mulattoes, 25,540 slaves. The population, on the whole, amounted to 24,418. The city of Christianstadt contained 664 houses, and 5000 inhabitants. It is situate in latitude $17^{\circ} 49' 26''$ north, and in longitude $64^{\circ} 49' 26''$ west of Greenwich. It is seven miles long, and about a mile wide. One plantation, well stocked, contains about 50,000 square *ells*—about 1500 'paces' long and 1000 wide. If the pace be of three feet, it will be somewhat less than a mile long, and little more than half a mile wide. The plain part of the island is most fertile, but unhealthy. The heat is excessive. A catalogue of the plants is subjoined. The white inhabitants are chiefly English.

The inhabitants of St. Thomas are a mixture of every nation and language. In 1789 the number amounted to 492 whites, 160 free negroes, and 4614 slaves. In the same year, in St. John, there were 167 whites, 16 free negroes, and 2200 slaves—total 2383. The population of Tortola amounts to 1300 whites and about 4350 negroes.

This very accurate account of these Danish islands is illustrated with three large and very exact charts. Two relate to Ste. Croix, the other to St. John.

I T A L Y.

Elementi di Botanica. Elements of Botany, by Dom. Nocca, with many Plates introductory to a Knowledge of the System of Linnæus. 8vo. Padua.—The author attempts to ex-

plain the system of Linnæus by some well-chosen examples and drawings executed by himself. His object is to explain the knowledge of plants, and to render the nomenclature of the science familiar. He aims not at novelty, but perspicuity, and, so far as we can judge, has attained it.

Dell' Epigramma Greco et dell' Anacreontica Greca. On the Greek Epigram and the Greek Anacreontic, by Count de Vargas. 12mo. Sienna.—We do not think our author's definition of the Greek epigram, with which the work commences, perfectly just. 'It is,' he remarks, 'the expression of a situation or of an interesting idea, whose object is to give instruction or to raise emotion.' This definition may well apply to different kinds of poetry, particularly the lyric; and we should prefer the following—*viz.* an elegant and rapid expression of a sentiment occasioned by a lively impression. This, however, is not exactly suitable to our ideas: it *trims* between the ancient and modern meaning, without exactly meeting either. Like many other good things, it must be felt; for it cannot be defined.

The author next attempts to class epigrams, and quotes some of each kind, subjoining good, indeed often elegant, translations. In the first class, are those simply expressive of the subject, such as the epigrams of Alcaeus, and several of Lucian's. In the second, those which subjoin a kind of application: the examples are, one of Antipater on a statue of Myron, and one of Posidippus on a similar subject. In the third class, are those that show the object under its true and only point of view, such as that on the Niobe of Praxiteles, and of Simonides on a statue of Sophocles. In the fourth class, are the epigrams which unite many different objects: examples, that of Archias on a swallow, that of Pallas on the fire stolen by Prometheus.

In the following and last chapter the author explains the history and rules of the Greek epigram, pointing out the changes of the Anthology, and quoting many examples to show the difference between epigrams, Anacreontics, and moral sentences.

The second memoir is on Anacreontic poetry, and is of less importance. The count considers it as of a mixed kind, of which the principal ideas are founded on hope, desire, and remembrance. This conception is too vague for a classification; and we shall not, therefore, follow that which is founded on it. In general, this is a pleasing work. The critical observations are ingenious, and the translations often truly elegant.

Memorie del Cavaliere Roberto Monrose. Memoirs of the Chevalier Monrose. 8vo. Trieste.—The author informs us

that this is not a romance, but the adventures of an enlightened, an honest, and ingenious man. The work is amusing and instructive, particularly from the episodes intermixed. We shall select some of the titles: 1. the inconveniences, pleasures, and advantages, of traveling; 2. instability of human affairs; 3. character and force of ambition; 4. jealousy without love; 5. the passions less violent in mature age, but more difficult to subdue.—The style is free and pure.

Quadro del Cuore umano. Tablets of the human Heart, or a Collection of Anecdotes and Novels, both instructive and amusing. 5 Vols. 8vo. Venice.—This is a pleasing little collection, long since begun, and now concluded. The novels are taken from different languages, often from the English; and the volume, we think, might make a pleasing school-book.

Anno Poetico. The Poetic Year, or the annual Collection of unpublished Poems by living Authors. 8vo. Venice.—Our classification, in the two last articles, we perceive to be wrong. Turin is in France, and Venice under the dominion of Austria; but these unnatural unions cannot overturn natural boundaries; and the language must furnish our apology. We notice the present work, chiefly to offer an antidote to the imposition of the title. By ‘living authors,’ the editor means those alive in *fame*, though long since *really dead*; ‘for the dead live, and will always live, with posterity.’ We consequently find pieces of Agostino Paradisi, of Aurelio Bertola, of Gastone di Rezzonico, and even of Cina da Pistoja, of Petrarch, and Dante.

A similar apology must be made for ‘unpublished’ poems, since the *versi sciolti* of abbate Bettinelli, on the legislation of Leopold II. in Tuscany; the beautiful Ode of Vincenzo Giobacci, in praise of Virgil, printed, many years since, by Bodoni; and the cantatas of Cerati, cannot be styled unpublished. On the whole, the editors have given fewer new pieces than in their former publication, and, at the same time, fewer indifferent poems. Some truly inedited works are inserted, particularly by the chevalier Ippolito Pindemonte, by count Gozzi, some *versi sciolti* by the abbé Mascheroni, and some poems by the naturalist abbé Fortis.

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